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# SOCIAL EDUCATION

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# NEVER BEFORE Was It So Necessary to Know Goods AS TODAY

N THIS upset world today some common articles are going off the market and other things will have to be made to take their place. Again, some materials are hereafter to be used only in the making of munitions and war equipment. Civilian manufacturers will be obliged to make substitutions but how well these will answer their purpose remains to be seen. It is up to the consumer to be able to judge the new goods and to determine their real values.

Still again, with many salesmen and saleswomen going into the service and war work, there will be a sudden demand for new clerks with retail selling ability. These should receive training in selling and they must also know goods. The two are indispensable.

# CONSUMER GOODS—How to Know and Use Them —Reich and Siegler Textbook \$1.96 Workbook \$.52

This text in merchandising and consumer knowledge of goods and materials is for commercial and home economics courses. Its methods of judging and testing the genuineness of the goods, with hints for their proper care, will be an aid to salesmen and purchasers. Also enlightening are such features as the history of many important commodities and the treatment of their geographical location, economic implications, and problems of distribution.

# SELLING TO THE CONSUMER—Reich Textbook \$1.96 Workbook \$.64

The principles of retail selling are here set forth. The factors or main divisions of the book cover the salesman, his attitude and personality, knowledge of merchandise, the consumer, the selling process, good salesmanship, service and the store. The book also contains an application of retail selling principles by means of practical techniques as suggested by leading manufacturers, selling from a list of prospects, house-to-house selling, and getting a job of selling.

#### AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

New York Cincinnati Chicago Boston Atlanta Dallas San Francisco

# Editor's Page

#### Response to the War Emergency

ATE in January sixty social studies teachers, including several department heads, in and near New York, gathered to exchange views and experiences related to social studies teachers and the war emergency. Prior to the meeting many sent in questions which they desired to have discussed. Perhaps seven that appeared repeatedly represent questions that bother us all: (1) What new courses should we now offer? (2) What new emphases should appear in existing courses? (3) How much attention should we give to current events? (4) How shall we treat the causes and issues of the war, and the bases of the peace? (5) What attitude shall we take toward "enemy alien" groups in the United States? (6) How can we preserve democracy in wartime? (7) What war activities of students and teachers should be encouraged?

In the session no new courses were reported, though in one school several departments are cooperating in the treatment of war and defense science, health education, and civilian morale.

The new emphases included increased attention in history and geography classes to the Far East and to Latin America, and larger time allotments to current events, now apparently concerned almost entirely with aspects of the war. There was some feeling that current happenings may be receiving, in their superficial aspects, too much attention; that background history and social science are needed for perspective and any approximation to real understanding. The needs for critical analysis of foreign news releases and propaganda, for developing confidence without sacrificing realism, and for avoiding hysteria were stressed. There was no specific mention of any increased attention, outside current-events discussions, to Russia, to Africa, or to the British Empire.

IT IS possible that the causes and issues of the war, and the bases of the peace, need further clarification and consideration in social studies

classrooms. Democracy, with its civil rights, its freedoms, its respect for the individual, its concern with the welfare of all, is central both to the war effort and our hopes for the peace. We know what we are for and what we are against. Yet the fact that only incidental reference was made to either specific issues and war aims or to specific proposals for the post-war world suggests either that we may be taking too much for granted, or that further analysis is desirable.

Attitudes towards the Germans, Italians, and Japanese in their homeland were not dealt with. One school, with a notable mixture of national groups, has effectively developed tolerance and sound intercultural relations not by stressing the contributions of separate groups but by promoting cooperation in common enterprises and a matter-of-course, un-selfconscious study of social problems in their historical and contemporary settings. The policy has reduced strains that otherwise might be extreme now.

Only one example of the teaching and practice of democracy was introduced. A private, endowed school has provided for cooperative, democratically-planned study of an underprivileged community near a school for privileged youth, with opportunity both for firsthand experience and practice of democracy.

A few "war activities" mostly within the school, were cited. They include use of school assemblies, student forums, student clubs, and classroom and corridor bulletin boards. In one school, forums are being held to deal with such questions as How can individuals help in the war? What should students do during summer vacations? Should boys go on to college in wartime? How can we plan for peace?

Some concern was expressed after the discussion that the response to the emergency in the social studies classrooms seems somewhat slow, limited, and uncertain. Reports of other effective responses, in brief articles or, preferably, in short notes, will be welcomed for publication in this journal.

ERLING M. HUNT

# We've Gone to War Before

Harry Bard

O OTHER American war has found the United States as united as the current one. According to John Adams' estimate, the Tories were probably a third of the population at the beginning of the American Revolution. The War of 1812 showed a sharp division among the three great sections of the country, with the South and West in favor, the Middle States lukewarm, and New England hotly against the contest. Professor Hockett writes, "Upon the passage of the declaration [of war] the Federalists in Congress met in caucus and issued an address denouncing the war as 'a party and not a national war,' entered into by a divided people. . . . Taking the address as their keynote, the New England wing of the party continued their factious conduct throughout the period of hostilities. They hung flags at half-mast and tolled church bells upon hearing of the declaration. . . . They obstructed the efforts of the administration to utilize the militia as a national army, attempted to nullify federal legislation, and finally called a convention supposedly to consider secession."1

As for the Mexican War, the country as a whole entered it enthusiastically. On May 11, 1846, President Polk declared that Mexico had "shed American blood upon American soil. . . . War exists, and, notwithstanding all our efforts to avoid it, exists by the act of Mexico herself." Yet not all Americans shared Polk's views. Many Northerners opposed the war on the ground that it was fought to give the South more slave territory. General Grant, in his Memoirs, speaks of a strong personal opposition to the Mexican War.

<sup>1</sup> Homer Cary Hockett, Political and Social Growth of the American People, 1492-1865 (New York: Macmillan, 3d ed., 1940), pp. 419f.

Our entrance into the war has forced us to make painful adjustments. But, as the supervisor of history in the public secondary schools of Balitmore reminds us, Americans have gone through such adjustments before. So, as we go forward with our military and civil efforts—"Be historical, not hysterical!"

All school children are familiar with the effect of President Lincoln's first call for 75,000 troops on April 15, 1861, when the Civil War began. The immediate response of 80,000 men showed that the North as a whole was behind the President's desire to sustain the Union. Yet it could hardly be claimed that the non-seceding states were firmly united. At the beginning of the war the four border states, whose citizens were sharply divided on the issues, followed a policy of neutrality.2 One reason for Maryland's remaining in the Union was the coercive action of federal troops, from other states, placed at strategic forts in Baltimore and other cities.3 Missouri and Kentucky were kept in the Union only after bloody conflict within those states. Throughout the Civil War the border states, except Delaware, supplied nearly as many men to the Confederate as to the Union armies. Opposition from the non-seceding part of the nation was not confined to the border states. In New York, "from the beginning of the war there had been a vigorous strain of Southern sympathy in the city, and powerful papers, such as the World and the Journal of Commerce were outspoken in their criticism of Lincoln and the Union government. . . . The governor of New York, Horatio Seymour, was politically opposed to Lincoln, was strong for local rights, and was not expected to ignore the powerful anti-war sentiment in city and state." While opposition to the war was not as strong in other Northern states, there were some sincere citizens in all parts of the Union who thought the Confederate states should be permitted to set up their own government.

THE Spanish-American War found a more united nation than had the Civil War. Even Walter Millis, a severe critic of America's actions in 1898, places great emphasis on the unity of our people. He says, "It was a war entered without misgivings and in the noblest frame of mind. . . .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> J. G. Randall, The Civil War and Reconstruction (Boston: Heath, 1937), pp. 273-74.

ton: Heath, 1937), pp. 273-74.

<sup>a</sup> J. T. Scharf, History of Baltimore City and County (Philadelphia: Everts, 1881), pp. 130-32.

<sup>\*</sup>Randall, op. cit., pp. 413f.

Seldom has a war been started in so profound a conviction of its righteousness. Even so sturdy a liberal as Carl Schurz could conclude, as he debated the problem, that it must be 'a case of self-sacrifice." Yet even the Spanish-American War did not find the country as greatly united as we are today. In 1898 there were a number of leading men who thought war was not necessary. On April 26, 1898, one day after the declaration of war, former President Cleveland wrote to former Secretary of State Olney, "With all allowances I can make . . . I cannot avoid a feeling of shame and humiliation. . . . My only relief from the sick feeling which these thoughts induce consists in the reflection that it affects no one but myself and in the hope . . . that we shall find Spain so weak and inefficient that the war will be short. . . . "6 Compare Cleveland's statement with the strong indictment of Japan by former President Hoover on December 8, 1941, when Congress declared war against the invaders of Pearl Harbor.

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No previous conflict had found the United States as unified as when we entered World War I against Germany in 1917. Unrestricted submarine warfare created a united nation behind President Wilson's declaration that "the world must be made safe for democracy." American unity was apparent in such events as the general acceptance of the draft (there were no such draft riots as in the War between the States), the great contributions of all religious organizations, the popular support of the Liberty Loans, and the loyal military and industrial services of millions of men, women, and children.

The unity of our nation in 1917 is only surpassed by our present strength. Between September 1, 1939, and December 7, 1941, our country was divided in its views concerning American participation in the fight against the Axis threat. But the unprovoked bombing of Pearl Harbor by the Japanese united our nation overnight. When Congress declared that a state of war existed between Japan and the United States on December 8, 1941, the vote of 82 to o in the Senate and 388 to 1 in the House, represented the unity of our nation. The vote on December 10, 1941, declaring that a state of war existed with Germany was 88 to o in the Senate and 393 to o in the House. The same day, the war declaration against Italy was go to o in the Senate and 399 to o in the House. Even the overwhelming majority vote on April 4, 1917, which showed the Senate 86 to 6 and the House 373 to 50 for entrance into World War I against Germany, was surpassed by the Congressional support of our entrance into the current war.

#### WE HAVE STARTED SLOWLY BEFORE

BY DECEMBER 11, 1941, after initial American defeats in Hawaii and the Philippines, and after air raid warnings in New York City and on the west coast, students and adults were jolted out of their complacency. One result of this jolt was to create a realistic approach to the war with the Axis. This has been of extreme importance in accelerating our war efforts in civilian defense, financial support, and military preparedness. The early defeats in December, 1941, can almost be rationalized into blessings in disguise. Another result of the jolt caused by early enemy action in this war was not so beneficial. In and out of the classroom there prevailed a form of hysteria that might have led to defeatism. Fortunately this hysteria disappeared after the air raid alarms stopped in New York.7 But there will be more alarms in the future, and there may be many more defeats in 1942 before the Allies take the offensive.

To guard against hysteria among students, history teachers should point to the lessons of the past. America has lost early battles in previous wars and come out the victor. The glaring headlines of December 9, 1941, announcing "the evacuation of Long Island" (which did not take place), is not new to historians. Students can perhaps get much comfort from learning that in the early days of the Revolutionary War, in August, 1776, the American colonial army under George Washington did evacuate Long Island, after what an American historian has called a brilliant British victory "skillfully planned and well executed. On the American side it was a humiliating defeat."8 But Washington conducted a retreat which the same author calls "an operation unsurpassed in military skill. Washington did not lose confidence. He issued an impassioned address to his troops, telling them that 'the fate of unborn millions will now depend, under God, on the courage and conduct of this army.' "9 And

W. Millis, The Martial Spirit (New York: Literary Guild, 1931), p. 160.

Millis, op. cit., p. 161.

New York might not have taken their alarms of December 9 seriously, but other cities were concerned about the metropolitan city, and worried that they might be next.

<sup>\*</sup>F. V. Greene, The Revolutionary War (New York: Scribners, 1911), p. 40.

<sup>\*</sup> Ibid, p. 34.

these brave men went on to win their independence, and ours, despite even greater trials at Valley Forge.

N THE day after the bombing of Pearl Harbor, President Roosevelt in his message to Congress, asking for a declaration of a state of war against Japan, spoke of this conflict as a long one. By December 8, 1941, many people were convinced that we could not "beat the Japs in two weeks." This change of heart about the enemy is not a new idea to those who look into the past. In the War of 1812 when the early battles brought a smashing defeat for America and the British occupation of Detroit, our people had to change their minds about "capturing Canada in a few weeks." On July 22, 1861, the day following the debacle at Bull Run, Congress asked for an army of 500,000 men for a period of not more than three years, later changed to the duration of the war. Overnight Congress altered its idea of "a three months' conflict" to one of three years. In April, 1917, when we entered World War I, Americans did not believe that it would be necessary to send a large expeditionary force to aid our allies; but a crushing defeat of the Italians at Caporetto in October, 1917 and the Russian peace with Germany in March, 1918, changed our beliefs about "defeating the Germans in a few months."

EARLY every large American city on the eastern coast has, at some time in its history, fought against an invader. The historical lesson which students can learn is that those cities which were prepared for the invaders, and met them with a resolute spirit, drove off the foreign forces.

Following America's entrance into the war, the Mayor of Baltimore proclaimed December 17, 1941, as New Defenders' Day, and reminded the people of that city that men and women of our times could repeat the actions of those brave citizens who defended their homes against the enemy on Old Defenders' Day, September 12, 1814. The story of the defense of Baltimore in the War of 1812 is known by all who are familiar with the writing of the "Star Spangled Banner." The citizens of Baltimore were then unafraid and prepared. They had learned from the plight of the nearby city of Washington that defense preparations were necessary. There was no defeatism among the gallant Baltimoreans of 1814, and neither was there complacency that gave expression to "it could not happen here." But as the

authority on Maryland history, J. T. Scharf tells us, "In the meantime the citizens were not idle. though the disasters which had befallen our arms in previous encounters gave but slight ground for hope of success in any contest with veterans fresh from victorious strife with the legions and genius of Napoleon. . . . The prospect to which they looked forward was indeed gloomy-to the sailor, impressment and fetters; to the soldier-citizen, the prison ship; to the merchant, confiscation and ruin; to the house-owner, the torch of the incendiary. . . . But the storm of war shook not their firm hearts. The citizen-soldiery of Baltimore on that gloomy Sunday bade a tearful adieu to their wives and children, put on the harness of battle, and went forth to meet the insolent invader."10 It was this spirit and the accompanying success against the invaders, which inspired the words of the national anthem. Boston and Charleston, South Carolina<sup>11</sup> in the Revolutionary War, Baltimore and New Orleans in the War of 1812, are other outstanding examples of how civilian defenders helped to turn back invaders.

ITH this historical material as a background for a study of the organization of civilian defense today, the student should be able to meet the problem more realistically. Naturally no historical treatment of civilian defense would be complete without references to London, Moscow, and Chungking in the current war.

Thus the social studies classroom becomes the best place to study the organization and functions of civilian defense in this war. Students should learn about local and state defense programs. They should know the functions of air raid wardens, firemen, policemen, and Red Cross workers. They should be familiar with blackout regulations and know what to do during an air raid.

Throughout all this instruction, two points should be stressed by teachers. First, in total war, as this is, civilians must be prepared for anything. Second, if we are prepared, there need be no fears. Any one who has taken instruction in civilian-defense work (whenever possible, teachers of history and social studies should be encouraged to take such courses) knows that with proper preparations there need be no fear of bombs, or even gas attacks. Materials are available to combat all these forms of destruction and to confidence in the present can be added courage from the past.

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10 Scharf, op. cit., p. 90.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Greene, op. cit., pp. 184-88, contains an excellent discussion of this point.

# Historical Perspective on Our Teaching of the First World War

Howard R. Anderson and Elaine Forsyth

The people of America have had war thrust upon them. The tragic events of Sunday, December 7, brought home to all Americans the hopelessness of attempting to live at peace with international gangsters. The progress of the war to date permits no illusions as to the seriousness of the situation. Americans must steel themselves to fight on to victory however long and however costly the struggle may be. Our job is to see that the mad advocates of total war experience total defeat. And that job includes the execution of a peace settlement which will prevent the outbreak of a world conflict in the next generation.

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But it is not the purpose of this paper to prescribe a foreign policy for the United States. This country will pursue an intelligent and effective foreign policy if and when the majority of citizens have acquired a broad understanding of world affairs. Though such an understanding depends on reading, thinking about, and discussing important issues throughout one's life, the basis for constructive thinking about world affairs is a solid grounding in history acquired during youth. American youth need especially to study the background of the First World War, and the mistakes made at the peace conference and in the period which followed; and to trace the roots of the Second World War to their proper source.

If teaching the First World War is important today, it is worth our while to review previous efforts along this line. Unfortunately such a survey has limitations, since it is impossible to sample directly the work of thousands of teachers. Yet we may get some understanding of how American teachers taught the World War by reading pertinent materials and practices described and advocated in professional journals. Specifically, let us review articles relating to the teaching of the World War published in the History Teacher's Magazine, the Historical Outlook, Social Studies (to December, 1936), and Social Education (to December, 1941).

BEFORE THE UNITED STATES ENTERED THE WAR

URING the period from the outbreak of hostilities to April, 1917, the History Teacher's Magazine published only six articles dealing with the World War. The first of these, included in the issue of September, 1914, urged history teachers to help pupils and adults understand the war by teaching such background factors as racial nationalism, industrialism, imperialism, and militarism.1 The author of this article expressed the judgment that "German militarism is supported by German industrial success; and there are many in Germany today who believe that further industrial progress can not be attained until the new strength of Germany is used in expanding her sphere of influence at the expense of those who hold the best parts of the world."2

But in the very next issue of the magazine an anonymous author offered quite different advice. He wrote, "It is no wonder that many school administrators have . . . [forbidden] all study and discussion of the war. For the teacher who has not absolute control of his or her sympathies, nor complete control of the class, this is the only

2 Ibid., p. 229.

It might be tactless to ask whether teachers of history can learn lessons from history, but an account of how the First World War has been taught ought surely to help us to gain perspective on the Second as well as on the First World War. This paper was read at a meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies in Chicago last December by Professor Anderson. He is an associate professor in Cornell University and director of social studies in the Ithaca high schools. Miss Forsyth, formerly a teacher in Faribault (Minnesota) High School, collaborated in writing the paper. She is now a graduate student at Cornell and a part-time teacher in Ithaca Junior High School.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> "The European War and History Teachers," History Teacher's Magazine, September, 1914.

reasonable solution." This author went on to urge that "As individuals and as a nation we must sink our prejudices and sympathies in the strictest neutrality" and remarked in an aside that "Wars can be brought on most easily among primitive and uneducated peoples and in states possessing monarchial governments." He was willing to concede, however, that a study of the conflict might serve to instil in pupils' minds both the "horrors of war" and "the opportunities which seem to be opening before the American producer and merchant."

In March, 1915, G. Stanley Hall reported a survey of 100 representative cities in which he found that 22 were not teaching the war and that "Two even forbid all allusion to it and have dropped not only current events, but all European geography and history. . . . "6 Hall himself concurred with the anonymous author already cited in urging that the schools teach "the lesson of peace"7 and "unprecedented trade possibilities in South America,"8 and, without comment, listed the reasons given by superintendents of schools for not teaching the war. Among these we may note: "censorship lets through so little that we can not know enough about it" and "teachers are really too ignorant to do justice to it."9 One superintendent, doubtless hoping to be truly neutral, asserted that he would eliminate, "while the war lasts, all allusions to battles in all history classes."10

Another author, writing in the History Teacher's Magazine, expressed the comforting thought that "Somehow . . . the future civilization will emerge, as in the past, from the clash of . . . ideals and ambitions. The past makes it clear that civilization will be safeguarded, whatever happens. The future no more depends upon a single race or a nation than a nation depends upon a single individual." A more perfect rationalization of a "do nothing policy" can scarcely be imagined.

That the interest of teachers in the World War increased during 1915 and 1916 is suggested by

bibliographical lists and notices of professional meetings published in various issues of the *History Teacher's Magazine*. But one finds no articles that throw light on what was actually taught.

#### APRIL 1917 TO THE PEACE CONFERENCE

7HEN the United States declared war on Germany history teachers could no longer ignore the conflict and the History Teacher's Magazine found it expedient to print an article, "Bobbie and the War," which provided pat answers to such questions as "What made this war come anyhow?" "Why are we at war?" and "Is this the last war?"12 Bobbie's Father suggested that militarism and imperialism were the important underlying causes of the war and assigned Germany substantial blame for both.13 He went on to recall that "When the war started . . . most Americans . . . thought the War was Europe's business. . . . But as . . . unlawful acts and inhumane forms of warfare were used more and more by the Germans, the American people gradually realized that the War was an attack upon the rights of all liberty-loving peoples."14 Then followed a list of "acts of the Germans which led the American people . . . to believe that this [German] militarism must be crushed": the violation of Belgian neutrality, the harsh treatment of occupied areas, unrestricted submarine warfare, "bomb plots in the United States . . . and [efforts] . . . to involve us in war with Mexico and Japan."15 This article ended on a hopeful note: "When the military rule of Germany is overthrown, there will be, we believe, a world league of free, self-governing communities. . . . The commerce of the world will be free to all. When quarrels . . . arise . . . they will be settled by submission to a court of arbitration."16

ALL articles published during this period assigned to Germany a major share of blame for the war. Although some authors used restrained language, 17 one stated flatly, "The tes-

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> "The War in the Schools," History Teacher's Magazine, October, 1914, p. 259.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., p. 259.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Ibid., p. 259.

G. Stanley Hall, "Teaching the War," History Teacher's Magazine, March, 1915, p. 67.

<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 70.

<sup>\*</sup> Ibid., p. 69.

<sup>9</sup> Ibid., p. 67.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid., p. 67

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Roland G. Usher, "The War and the Future of Civilization," History Teacher's Magazine, January, 1915, p. 14.

Bobbie's Father, "Bobbie and the War," History Teacher's Magazine, June, 1917.

<sup>13</sup> Ibid., p. 178.

<sup>14</sup> Ibid., p. 179.

<sup>18</sup> Ibid., p. 179.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup> Ibid., p. 182. The importance of educating youth to accept internationalism in place of "narrow patriotism" and "bigoted Nationalism" was earlier recognized by Carl Conrad Eckhardt in an article, "War and Peace in the Light of History," *History Teacher's Magazine*, February, 1917.

<sup>1917.

18</sup> See, for example, Andrew C. McLaughlin, "The Great War: From Spectator to Participant," History Teacher's Magazine, June, 1917, p. 183.

timony is overwhelming not only that Germany planned with Austria an aggressive stroke in 1914, but that in the end it was she who willed the war."18 Again and again the charge was made that Germans believed in the superiority of their culture and hoped to expand their "world influence and prestige."19 One historian, interestingly enough, gave as a fundamental cause of the war the fact that Prussia had derived profit from past wars.20

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Some authors displayed greater penetration than Bobbie's Father in explaining the reasons for American participation in the World War. Let us note two points which seem especially significant because of what the United States failed to do in 1919 and because of the situation in which this country finds itself today. The first of these was made by Professor McLaughlin who remarked that "without America's entrance into this war there was little hope for relief from the crushing weight of war and the almost equally burdensome weight of ever-increasing armed preparation";21 the second by Professor Harding who called attention to the fact that "Prussian militarism and autocracy, let loose in the world, disturbed the balance of power and threatened to destroy the international equilibrium." The latter concluded that "our traditional policy of isolation and aloofness was outgrown and outworn, and could no longer be maintained."22 The judgment expressed in these quotations, that it was to the advantage of the United States to go to war in 1917, is in sharp contrast with the halftruth so frequently repeated by later historians, that "wars settle nothing" and "all countries lose in a war."

URING the period of the World War many writers argued that after German militarism was crushed a world association of nations should be created to make another world conflict impossible. One author stated the case for a league as follows, ". . . the United States is now a world power . . . [and] has important and legitimate interests in every part of the world . . . the nations of the world are so bound together that a war is no longer a local disaster but a world calamity . . . the stopping of war is not the right

and duty of some nations but of all nations. . . . As a world power . . . we are inevitably interested in maintaining the hard-won principles of international law. . . . We look forward to some sort of league to enforce peace after the present struggle."23 Several authors also urged a reappraisal of our relations with Great Britain.24 Thus a case was made for Anglo-American solidarity; if all English-speaking people had been allied in 1914 there would have been no war. And "if the Anglo-Saxon nations are not ready at the moment when peace comes to assume the leadership and secure the progress of the future . . . there will be great danger that the opportunity [to secure world peace] will be lost."25

To summarize, during the period of American participation in the World War, our teaching about this conflict tended to hold (1) that Germany was largely to blame for the war, (2) that it was to the interest of the United States to enter the war, and (3) that a world association of nations should be organized to prevent future wars.

#### THE POST-WAR PERIOD

T IS not necessary to discuss at length the post-war reaction which led the people of America to repudiate the Versailles Treaty and to turn their backs on the League. As national goals, "isolation" and "back to normalcy" were poor substitutes for international cooperation and the will to accept the responsibilities of a great power. The United States was not the only power which shirked duty in the two decades following the First World War. But the United States set the precedent, and today we are paying the price for our short-sightedness.

That the peace settlement was not likely to provide a lasting peace was soon recognized by historians. Writing in 1923, Carlton J. H. Hayes said, "Unless I misread contemporary events, I perceive . . . a disillusionment and selfishness throughout the whole world, which betoken, perhaps in our generation . . . another Great War."26

Popular opinion regarding the causes of the

<sup>38</sup> Samuel B. Harding, "Topical Outline of the War," History Teacher's Magazine, January, 1918, p. 43.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> See McLaughlin, op. cit., p. 183; Harding, op. cit.,

p. 30.

\*\* Harding, op. cit., p. 30.

n Op. cit., p. 185.

<sup>2</sup> Op. cit., p. 55.

<sup>28</sup> Arthur P. Scott, "The Passing of Splendid Isolation," History Teacher's Magazine, June, 1917, p. 195. See also Thomas W. Gosling, "A New Internationalism," Historical Outlook, June, 1919.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Howard C. Hill, "The War and the Teaching of History," History Teacher's Magazine, January, 1918; George B. Adams, "The English Background of American Institutions," Historical Outlook, November, 1918; Conyers Read, "The Evolution of Democracy in England," Historical Outlook, November, 1918.

Adams, op. cit., p. 423.

Carlton J. H. Hayes, "Nationalism and the Social Studies," Historical Outlook, October, 1923, p. 246.

World War and the reasons for the entry of the United States into the conflict began to change soon after 1919. Doubtless American economic policy, which at one and the same time sought to protect the American market, collect the war debts, and sell abroad, was partly responsible. Historical research which discredited the thesis of German war guilt written into the Versailles Treaty also conditioned public opinion. Many historians, in rejecting the war guilt thesis, unfortunately failed to make clear that prior to 1914 the Germans had what to them seemed adequate reasons for wanting to improve their economic, strategic, and cultural position in the world; entertained a grim resolve to do just that; and definitely contemplated achieving their goal by force of arms. That the defeat of 1918 only strengthened those convictions is now abundantly clear. German policy since 1935 most certainly can not be explained entirely in terms of Allied stupidity, American indifference, Hitlerian propaganda, and the plotting of professional militarists and munitions makers.

With the repudiation of the German war-guilt thesis came a re-examination of the causes leading to American participation in the war. It no longer was fashionable to discuss how German militarism threatened to upset the balance of power and menaced the United States. Some argued that this country had been tricked into going to war by British propagandists and international bankers. Let me quote from an article, "How to Study Wars": "No longer do historians accept the unilateral responsibility of Germany. In America we know that the only wide-open channels of propaganda were pro-ally, that the American ambassador to England was intensely pro-British, and the American ambassador to Berlin bitterly anti-German, that . . . American business was making enormous profits in business with the Allies, and that American investors had increasing stakes in the Allied victory that by the beginning of 1917 was in serious jeopardy." This author then added that the purpose in having students study war was to give them a "background for analyzing future international disagreements with the kind of emotional control and objectivity that will lessen the danger of war."27 We now know that between September, 1939, and December, 1941, many Americans displayed great "emotional control," less "objectivity," and failed completely to "lessen the danger of war."

N THE 1930's it became the vogue to place responsibility for the World War, and for wars in general, on powerful munitions interests. These "Merchants of Death" were blamed as well for the billions annually spent on armaments. Many argued that military expenditures were unnecessary and held that there could be no war if the common people would simply refuse to fight. Unfortunately such "peace at any price" propaganda made little headway except in the democracies, where all views, wise or foolish,

might freely be expressed.

Many earnest and well-intentioned teachers sought to eliminate nationalist bias from the teaching of history and described a variety of procedures for developing international understanding.28 One teacher, for example, reported a project in which a group of students prepared and circulated a petition calling for disarmament, and forwarded it to the President.29 Though most of those who wrote in professional journals to advocate the teaching of peace limited themselves to a discussion of materials and teaching procedures,30 one ardent reformer urged a veritable blitzkrieg to eliminate toy soldiers, guns, cannon in the city parks, art and literature having military themes, military parades, and the singing of "Onward Christian Soldiers." Such advice, given in February, 1938, was a trifle late and almost certainly addressed to the wrong audience.

It is difficult to evaluate the effect on children of this peace propaganda. One high school senior wrote a poem, "The Things Men Fight For,"32

38 Austin H. Turney, "A Project Concerning Disarma-

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ment," Historical Outlook, May, 1932.

1939. 11 Emily V. Baker, "Let's Try Education for Peace," Social Education, February, 1938.

<sup>27</sup> Robert I. Adriance, "How to Study Wars," Social Education, January, 1937, p. 29.

<sup>28</sup> See Nellie L. Jackson, "The First Inter-High School Model Assembly of the League of Nations," Historical Outlook, January, 1929; Howard E. Wilson, "Development of International Attitudes and Understandings in the Secondary School," Historical Outlook, February, 1929; M. E. Clark, "Our Relations with Our World Neighbors, A Study of American Foreign Policy," Historical Outlook, February, 1929: Mary Dever, "World Relations as a Subject in the Curriculum," Historical Outlook, February, 1929; W. G. Kimmel, "Trends in the Teaching of History," Historical Outlook, April, 1929; Maurice T. Price, "Our Amateurishness in Promoting International Goodwill," Social Studies, October-November, 1935; Leo Litzky, "A Course in International Relations," Social Education,

<sup>\*</sup> Harrison C. Thomas, "Materials on Peace," Social Education, December, 1937; Nelle E. Bowman, "Educating Children for Peace," Social Education, March, 1938; Carl G. Winter, "A Unit on Peace," Social Education, January,

<sup>28</sup> Veronica Wiedman, in the "Editor's Page," Social Education, October, 1938, p. 456.

which was published in Social Education. It contained these lines:

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#### 1917

A world that's safe for democracy, A world where freedom rules, A war that's a war to end all war— (These were the dreams of fools.) So they plodded along in an endless train Singing merrily as they went, To drive the plague of war from earth— For this their lives were spent.

#### 1938

Now Mars is treading the earth again
With firm and measured tread.
We've raised him up and placed him high
—God pity those noble dream-drugged fools
Who valiantly gave their lives
"To make the world forever free;"
Who gave themselves—for lies,
For lies, for lies, for hateful lies,
Which they called nobility.
They gave their lives to achieve a dream
Which we know can never be.
We know this dream can never be
For which our fifty thousand died.
Let the band wagon roll again
—We'll all jump on and take a ride!

Another student-author, in a play discussing peace, included these lines: "Wesley: And personally, I don't want my head blown off when the only thing it will make the world safe for, is plutocracy." To which Carolyn answered, "In other words, you think the real war-makers are the money makers, or the people like munition makers who make money out of war."<sup>33</sup>

THESE excerpts from the writings of pupils may or may not reflect accurately the slant of social studies teaching, and the reaction of students to such teaching, during the late 1930's. But one teacher at any rate objected violently to the conclusions expressed in "The Things Men Fight For." R. O. Hughes, in a letter to the Editor of Social Education, said, among other things:

God pity and give light to those young people of today who thus early have become so cynical and sophisticated that they think of those who offered their lives in a holy cause as simply getting on a bandwagon. And may He bring repentance and reformation to those false leaders of our youth who, through either a love of the sensational or a warped devotion to peace at any price, cast discredit upon some of the noblest of our personal and national ideals! Failure to achieve them offers not the slightest justification for reflecting on the attempt to do so. Vic-

tories for the right come only through repeated efforts to achieve it."44

#### In a later letter Mr. Hughes added,

Woodrow Wilson led his country into war rather than submit to tyranny and wrong. Neville Chamberlain at Munich submitted to tyranny and wrong in order to avoid war. It appears that he did not make the world safe for democracy either. \*\*

In summarizing trends in teaching the World War during this period one must remember that conclusions are based on indirect evidence. With that reservation in mind the following conclusions seem justified: (1) The thesis of divided responsibility for the war was gradually accepted. (2) Some held that the United States had made a mistake in going to war. There was little support for the point of view that the larger interests of this country dictated this step. (3) Many favored teaching slanted to develop international understanding; a smaller number advocated indoctrinating pupils to work for peace and disarmament. (4) The rise of Hitler to power did not seem to suggest a need for re-examining what was being taught about the World War and the role of this country in world affairs.

#### THE SECOND WORLD WAR

SEPTEMBER 1939 marked the end of an era. Isolation and pacifism no longer were acceptable goals for either American education or American foreign policy. Not that all teachers and statesmen understood what was taking place across the sea and how the aggressions of the dictators threatened the vital interests of this country.

Although the Editor of Social Education, in the first issue after the outbreak of hostilities, sounded this key note, "... the war and its issues must occupy a conspicuous place in social studies teaching... we... have a... new motivation for the study of modern history, of geography, of economic forces, and of political controls," it was not until March, 1941, that he was able to publish a vigorous article calling for a reconsideration of the causes of the First World War and of this country's part in that struggle. The author of this article, Professor Ruhl J. Bartlett of Tufts College, urged this reconsideration as a necessary preliminary to effective American action

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> Nelle E. Bowman, "Panel Discussion on Peace." Social Education, November, 1938, p. 560. Wesley found the basic cause of war to be "injustice," and found the remedy in strong international organization.

<sup>24</sup> R. O. Hughes to the Editor, Social Education, November, 1938, p. 530.

<sup>38</sup> R. O. Hughes to the Editor, Social Education, January,

<sup>\*</sup>Erling M. Hunt, "The War and Teaching," Social Education, October, 1939, pp. 447-48.

in the present world conflict. Bartlett's contribution to clear thinking about the World War should be read by all teachers of the social studies;37 the following excerpts serve only to outline his thesis.

1. "The responsibility for [the World War] . . . was not evenly divided among the nations that participated in it. No one invaded Germany or Austria, and no one threatened to do so."

2. "Strange doctrines have grown up in America concerning our entrance into the war [the influence of propaganda and of predatory economic interests]. . . . America's decision concerning the issues of the war was made in March, 1915. . . . The . . . stand . . . did not change by virtue of any device of propaganda. . . . The position taken in 1915 was that if American lives were lost or American ships were destroyed on the high seas contrary to the precepts of international law, the United States would defend its citizens. ... That the world dominated by Germany would not be safe for democracy was not only a slogan in 1917; it was a fact. . . . The second purpose [of America in entering the war] was the determination to establish such a world order that the nation would not be called again to

3. "While it would not be maintained that the [Versailles] treaty was completely just or that the machinery [for dealing with world problems] was completely perfect, it is true that in consideration of the circumstances that existed in 1919 the treaty was remarkably just and the machinery remarkably perfect."

4. ". . . the machinery for peaceful settlement of disputes did not break down, but disputes

"Ruhl J. Bartlett, "America's Hour of Decision," Social

were not peaceably settled because the machinery for their settlement was not employed. . . . Among the causes for the failure of the machinery of peace, none was as important as the failure of the United States to participate in its employment."38

TEACHERS who have spent a lifetime workl ing to promote international understanding should not cease their efforts now that the United States is at war. Let them ponder the points just quoted. There is a great need for teaching and re-teaching the futile years between the two great wars. And while they do this teaching let them take courage from these ringing words:

"... [War] ... exists because of the deliberate will of man. . . . It is the one great source of human misery that is clearly within the power of

man to eradicate.

"This fact has been clearly realized in America, and the realization has produced a great antiwar sentiment among the American people. What frequently has not been understood is that whereas one nation acting alone can create a war, one nation acting alone can not maintain itself at peace against an aggressor save at the price of servitude. . . .

"It is . . . nonsense . . . to suppose that in a condition of international anarchy one nation can simply say that it does not like war and therefore will go its way as though war does not exist. Peace . . . is not an end in itself but a means to an end. The desired end is human freedom. . . . When . . . unbridled aggression threatens to undermine the foundations of freedom, then the resistance to such forces is the only road to peace."89

38 The four points are summarized from the article and

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in the words of Bartlett, op. cit., p. 171ff.

39 Ibid., p. 179f.

#### On British attitude toward the war:

As far as my own country is concerned, the fundamental fact about this war is simple. It is that it is a popular war. I don't mean by that statement that anyone likes it. I mean merely that the most of the population regard it as personal to themselves, in the sense that they believe that everything they value in their own lives is at stake; that they intend, therefore, to see it through; and that, if seeing it through involves going short of food, working themselves to death, and incurring the civilian casualties incidental to air warfare, then they are prepared to pay that price. Because it is a popular war, the drastic reorganization of economic life which war always imposes, has been carried out with a regard not merely to efficacy but to equity, and not by coercion, but by consent.

PROFESSOR R. H. TAWNEY (University of London)

At Indianapolis, November, 1941

Education, March, 1941.

# Japan's War Potential

John H. Oakie

THE impasse in American-Japanese relations which had existed since Japan's invasion of Manchuria in 1931, moved to its logical conclusion with startling suddenness. Step by step, Japan's determination to establish hegemony in the Western Pacific and the United States' opposition to that course had brought the two nations closer to conflict. After Japan's occupation of Indo-China and the order by which the United States froze Japanese credits in retaliation, the two powers were deadlocked. Japan had a choice of abandoning her attempt to control the Western Pacific, and war. Japan chose war.

Quite aside from the ethical question involved in the use of diplomatic negotiations at Washington to screen war preparations, Japan's attack against American and British bases in the Pacific was a masterful piece of planning. The offensive opened almost simultaneously at points scattered over four thousand miles of ocean. It struck at Pearl Harbor, Midway, Wake, Guam, the Philippines, Hong Kong, Thailand, and Singapore, all on the morning of December 7. Airdromes, planes, naval vessels, repair and maintenance facilities, and communications centers were the primary objectives. The dash and precision of the attack, even taking into account the element of surprise on the side of the attacker, showed Japan to be a formidable opponent.

In the first five weeks of war, the hostilities developed rapidly with Japan continuing to hold the initiative. Guam and Wake were overpowered and occupied in a combined naval and aerial attack. Thailand capitulated to Japan after only five hours of resistance. Hong Kong's water supply soon failed, forcing the Crown Colony's surrender

to overwhelming numbers of Japanese troops. Japan established air superiority over Malaya and the Philippines and, after the torpedoing of the "Prince of Wales" and "Repulse," had undisputed naval control of the South China Sea. The British forces in Malaya were steadily pushed back toward the fortress of Singapore. General MacArthur's forces in the Philippines gave ground stubbornly before the sheer weight of Japanese numbers, evacuated Manila, and dug in for a last stand on the rugged Batan Peninsula.

Aside from the charted movement of land forces, the picture of war in the Western Pacific was ill-defined. However, it appeared that Japan's main objective was control of Southeast Asia, to be wrested from the democracies by a gigantic pincers operation. The drive down the Malay Peninsula from bases established in Thailand was being complemented by a Japanese attempt to move through the Philippines, Celebes, and Borneo toward Java and Sumatra.

As the air, land, and sea forces of the British Empire, the Dutch East Indies, and the United States fought to stem the Japanese offensive, it became evident that the arms, ability, and temper of Japan had been misjudged. Was it possible that the resources at Japan's command had also been miscalculated? What, actually, was the balance of power in the long war which seemed to be in prospect?

#### How Strong Is Japan

URRENT estimates of Japan's strength vary widely. Some of the experts insist that Japan's stockpiles of war materials are greater than ever before, that Japan can continue full-scale operations for several years. Others go to the opposite extreme, insisting that Japan's newest aggression is actually a sign of weakness—a desperate gamble to break through the cordon of economic pressures by which she was being brought to defeat. They believe that Japan will collapse within a very few months if its initial drive is stopped.

Neither of these extreme views has been able to summon direct evidence to its support. Japan's reserves of industrial raw materials, fuel, military

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Surprise, careful planning, and unsuspected strength have carried Japan far in the early weeks of the war. But how long can momentum be sustained? What are Japan's reserves and what will the new conquests contribute? The author of this analysis is secretary of the San Francisco Bay Region, Division of the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations.

equipment, machine tools, and machine-tool parts have carefully been kept secret. Even more secret, if that is possible, has been the status of Japanese naval construction, fighting-plane production, war-base preparation, and manufacture of arms. Undoubtedly, there has been some leakage of information about specific items like the Japanese midget tank, but on the whole, Japan's veil of secrecy and censorship has been effective.

This does not mean that no meaningful estimate of Japan's capacity to wage a first-class and prolonged war is possible. It does mean, however, that the estimate must be drawn in terms of Japan's basic strength or weakness as an industrial power, Japan's ability to satisfy the minimum requirements of its civilian population, and the extent to which Japan's known resources of manpower can be distributed among the claims of food production, industry, and the armed forces. An estimate in these terms can provide not a specific date on which the Japanese war effort may be expected to collapse, but an awareness of critical points at which indications of strains or collapse may first be expected.

THE controlling factor in Japan's military, naval, and civilian situation today is that the island empire is in its fifth year of war. It has been land warfare, for the most part, but of such scope that the whole pattern of Japanese life has been affected by it. There have been huge expenditures of manpower and war materials, accompanied by complete mobilization of Japanese resources. It is impossible to say whether Japan's imports of war materials have kept pace with the use of them in China, or whether the expenditure of men and material in China has been compensated by the experience gained there for troops, officers, engineers, and supply corps.

China's strategy of continually enlarging the theater of conflict brought an estimated one million Japanese into action between July 7, 1937 and December 7, 1941. There is no way of securing an accurate figure on the number of Japanese engaged by the Chinese, but it is clear that the Nipponese forces in China, together with those garrisoned in Manchuria, were large enough to force radical changes in the organization of Japanese life. Premier Prince Konoye undoubtedly recognized and appreciated this fact when, in 1938, he put through a National Mobilization Act for Japan. The subsequent application of the provisions of that act gave the Japanese government direct control of most phases of Japanese industry, agriculture, business, and labor.

JAPANESE industry, at the outbreak of war in 1937, was at the height of its light-consumers'-goods phase. The textile industry dominated many of the markets of the Orient and threatened British and American domination of many others. It was based on imported cotton and the efficient use of Japan's cheap labor, and produced a commodity both usable and cheap. Japanese bicycles, flashlights, rubber goods, shoes, and a miscellany of other articles were popular among the low-income peoples of the Western Pacific and found many a sale in the markets of the Occident.

Japanese heavy industry developed much more slowly than Japanese light industry, even with substantial financial assistance from the government. As late as 1936, Japanese employment in the production of metals, machinery, and chemicals lagged behind the number employed in the textile industry alone. But, beginning in 1937, heavy industry assumed a unique importance in the Japanese economy as a result of the requirements of the armed forces. The requirements of the peacetime, or normal, industries, the labor requirements of agriculture, and the stability of the Japanese economy as a whole were sacrificed to the necessity of producing more and more munitions for war. From 1937 on, statistics on the output of Japanese heavy industry were not published, but employment indices, news reports covering transfers of labor to the armament industries, and reports on the difficulty of maintaining a supply of agricultural labor in Japan, show that the expansion of heavy industry has been rapid.

Qualitatively, it must be assumed, Japan's heavy industry is competent to supply the existing needs of the country. A growing corps of Japanese technicians and engineers has always had the benefit of foreign advisers, among whom there have been numerous Germans. Up to the time of the American licensing system, under which the export of machines and machine tools to Japan was prohibited, Japan imported highgrade steels and certain types of machine tools and parts. Ever since the early 1930's, however, the amount and variety of these imports had been falling off as Japanese science and industry learned how to produce them. It is improbable, now, that Japan will collapse for want of ability to produce any single manufacturable item.

WHATEVER the technical competence of Japan's heavy industrial plant, there are large gaps in Japan's production of raw materials

with which to feed it. The most crucial shortage, of course, is iron. The Japanese Empire produces only about one-fourth of its requirements of iron ore, about one-third of its pig-iron consumption, and about one-half of the scrap iron used. It is probable that imports of iron in its various forms have become even more important a part of Japan's iron supply since 1937. Until the licensing system cut down on Japanese imports of scrap metal from the United States, the United States supplied two-thirds of Japan's scrap-iron needs. For iron ore, Japan depended upon the Philippine mines, which produced about one million tons in 1940, and upon the resources of Malaya, India, Australia, and China. A company was formed to develop iron deposits in French Indo-China, but work had not progressed far at the end of 1940.

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The British Empire sources of iron ore and pig iron began to dry up as far as Japan was concerned when war broke out in Europe in 1939. After 1940, no scrap, iron ore, or pig iron went to Japan from Australia, India, or Malaya. The Chinese mines fell into Japanese hands during the first two years of the war. Exports from occupied China to Japan mounted for several months after the occupation but reports from behind the Japanese lines suggest that these shipments represented the clearing of stockpiles and not new production. In 1941, the American freezing order was extended to the Philippines and Philippine iron-ore production was reduced by two-thirds. Official communiqués concerning the Philippines have not indicated whether a "scorched earth" policy was applied to the Philippine mines. Unofficial reports have stated that some of the largest gold and chromite mines were rendered unworkable before they were abandoned.

The conclusion to be drawn here is that smaller supplies of iron were available to Japan in 1940 and 1941 than in the preceding years, and in fact Japan's curtailment of merchant-marine, harbor, and rail construction in 1940 shows that the supply of iron was under jealous control.

The decline in imports carried absolutely no implication concerning the size of Japan's iron reserves; they may be very large. It does, however, show how overwhelmingly important it is to the Japanese war machine that its offensive in Southeast Asia go beyond the mere seizure and holding of key points and lines of communication. The iron-producing centers of Malaya and the Philippines must be brought back into production without delay if the armament industries of Japan are to be kept going.

What is true of Japan's iron supply is true in general of other mineral raw materials. Japan does have a wide variety of raw materials available within the empire, but few of them in such quantities as to be self-sufficient. Considerable reserves of tin, manganese, chromite, tungsten, and other metals essential to war production may be presumed, although American-Japanese trade statistics indicate that Japan's additions to her reserves fell off in 1940. The maintenance of reserves, however, clearly depends upon the exploitation of conquered territories.

THE pressure to maintain and build up Japan's supplies of raw materials for the war industries, and to keep those industries producing at their full capacity, has been felt by all sections of Japanese economy. The first to suffer were importers and users of European and American "luxuries." Imported foodstuffs, clothing, and miscellaneous manufactures disappeared from the Japanese market. That was one way of conserving foreign exchange for the purchase of industrial raw materials. The textile industry, which had shown such a remarkable growth during the early 1930's, was put under a link system which required a fixed ratio of textile exports to raw-cotton imports. The imports of raw materials for even those industries that by their activity brought in foreign exchange were gradually limited. Merchant-marine construction slowed down and finally stopped, ships were withdrawn from lucrative routes and pressed into service between Japan and the ports of occupied China, and the profits of Japan's carriers began gradually to dry up.

At the same time, American and British Empire producers of the commodities Japan wanted were asking "cash on the barrelhead" for their exports to Japan. Every purchase of oil, scrap metal, or machinery had to be backed up with pounds or dollars. Japan drew heavily on its meager gold reserves to secure the necessary exchange. Japan's purchases of oil, scrap metal, pig iron, machinery, tools, and parts fell off heavily in 1940 from the high levels established in 1938 and 1939. The delays which attended the clearing of Japanese tankers from American westcoast ports in 1940 attested Japan's poverty in foreign exchange and the difficulty that was being encountered in financing import transactions. It may safely be concluded, therefore, that Japan's smaller imports of war essential materials in 1940 were due in part to lack of funds with which to pay for more. The American, British, and Dutch restrictions of late 1940 and 1941 removed any possibility of adding to the Japanese stores.

TAPAN is almost self-sufficient in food. Before the outbreak of war in China in 1937, the paddy fields, fisheries, and gardens of Japan were producing enough to feed the nation and provide a small surplus for export. This is no longer the case. The army has called many men from the ranks of agriculture, many more have gone to work in the war industries, the price of artificial fertilizers has skyrocketed, and in one war year drought conditions added to the problems of the Japanese farmer. Some of these conditions, particularly the price of fertilizer and the shortage of agricultural labor, will have a cumulative effect on the total food supply of Japan. The condition of the fields will deteriorate from lack of intensive care, while the shortage of fertilizer will show up in steadily decreasing crop yields after 1942.

Beyond the effect on the level of living of the chronically depressed Japanese farmer, the reduction of Japan's domestically produced food supply will have little effect on the nation's war effort. Indo-China and Thailand, both under Japanese occupation, are two of the three great rice-producing and rice-exporting countries of Southeast Asia. If Japan can induce the natives to continue growing rice, and keep open her lines of communication to the south, there will be no starvation threat to the security of the empire.

Neither does there seem to be a prospect of a collapse in civilian morale capable of leading to a popular revolution against the army-navy government now in control. The Japanese people have been deprived of many of the goods that they normally consume, have been burdened by very heavy taxes, and have seen a steady and prolonged depletion of the nation's young manhood. The weakness in their position lies mainly in the fact that they have not much more which they can sacrifice to the war machine. There is not much margin left.

F ANY generalization from Japan's war ex-perience in China is permissible, it is that Japan launched its offensive against the democracies at the zenith of its strength. Japan was completely mobilized, its reserves of oil, metal, and other imported war essentials were as large as they could ever become without the conquest of producing areas or a reversal of policy on the part of the democracies, and the available supply of manpower was almost completely distributed between the armed services and civilian pursuits essential to their continued functioning. Because the Japanese state has opened war upon the democracies when attuned to its highest efficiency, it can be anticipated that the lapse of time without substantial rewards in the form of loot in Southeast Asia will see a gradual deterioration in the position of Japan.

The United States, in contrast, has only begun to mobilize its resources for war. Its industrial resources are incomparably greater than those of Japan, most of the raw materials for industry are to be found easily accessible within its borders, its people have hardly felt the deprivations of war, and it is still far from its peak effort. The wealth of the United States is great enough to provide leeway for the correction of bottlenecks, shortcomings, and mistakes. The poverty of Japan and the highly tuned machinery through which its poor resources integrate, provide that any shortage, any mistake, may be fatal.

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On economic history:

The study of economic development is still in its youth; but, of all branches of history, it is that whose progress in the last generation has been most striking. The impetus given it by the conversion of capitalist industry from an insular eccentricity located in Great Britain into a world-wide movement, transforming the texture of social organization on the continent of Europe, in America, and more recently in the Far East, and by the consciousness of the problems which that movement creates, is a common-place that needs no emphasis.

R. H. TAWNEY

# Developing Competency in America's Retarded Adolescents

I. Competence in Learning

Bernardine G. Schmidt

THE first line of future defense of any government lies in the intelligent education of its children and youth for an understanding of the theory and practical application of its basic principles. Such training for social efficiency is especially fundamental to the instructional program for mentally retarded adolescents, for within a short time after leaving school these children, notwithstanding their limitations, will enter into active citizenship. They will form an important, although not a conspicuous, part of the electorate, doing their part to shape the destinies of their democracy.

#### ABILITIES OF THE RETARDED

THE children between the ages of twelve and seventeen who are ordinarily classified as mentally retarded have IQ's ranging from 45 to 79. In general this corresponds to a mental-age range of five and a half to eleven years. Children whose performance on intelligence tests rates below an IQ of 40, or a mental-age equivalent below four years, are usually considered as unable to profit by public instruction and are officially excused from school attendance.

Despite the fact that, according to mental tests, these children are definitely slow-learners, they are not necessarily or consequently social misfits,

nor are they, as is often supposed, unteachable. Very often the achievement, both in academic fields and social adjustment, shown by those classified as mentally retarded leads one seriously to doubt either the validity of the original test results or, at least, the inflexibility of that misused score, the IQ. Some are talented in one or more special areas, though the range of such abilities is usually limited.

Slow learners can master the mechanical skills and acquire the comprehension necessary for reading, both for information and pleasure, books and pamphlets ranging in difficulty through the entire eight elementary grades. They can use an extensive room library of over seven-hundred volumes, and the public library as well, using the card-catalog systems in each, to develop projects and carry on other similar independent learning activities, and in the process can use indexes, simple encyclopedias, dictionaries, and other reference tools. They can also read, for selection and reconstruction, magazines, pamphlets, and newspapers, garnering what information is pertinent to their needs. Their favorite freereading books are adventure, stories of boardingschool life, biography, history, stories of animals, and humorous stories. They enjoy most heartily books by Cornelia Meigs, Louisa May Alcott, and Hugh Lofting, while greeting with equal enthusiasm new books by new authors.

They can rise to these achievements. Yet they come to this special class at entrance so retarded academically that only five per cent are able to read at a first-grade level, and with many actually unable to read their names in print. They come so lacking in oral language skills that often speech is defective beyond comprehensibility, though they have no organic defects. They come so confused socially that for their very safety they are, at the age of twelve and more, brought to school by their parents.

No problem in social studies teaching, or in American education as a whole, is more urgent than that of "slow learners" and the "retarded." The author of this article, now a teacher in the La Fayette School, Chicago, has had long experience with "retarded" and "problem" children, and has written several articles about them.

Part I deals with the learning of information and skills; Part II, to be published next month, is concerned with the development of political and social competence.

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LEARNING MATERIALS AND METHODS

RETARDED children are indifferent to illustrations in books, preferring a quick-moving, well-told story, unillustrated, to a simpler, slower, but well-illustrated tale. Neither do they learn well by the introduction of pictures and diagrams in the presentation of new materials

in instructional programs.1

Contrary to popular opinion, they do not necessarily possess a high, compensative ability in pure hand skills. Much more is accomplished through unified activity programs, using manual skills where they are appropriate in the development of problems or projects growing out of a major field of study. Usually this principal field is in social studies, for that is the subject matter which most closely touches skills in human relationships-those skills so needed by all individuals to attain both their fullest development in individual personality and their greatest social efficiency by adequate adjustment to a group and by contribution to its activities.2 Such a program teaches through active participation not only basic academic skills in reading, oral and written English, arithmetic, and writing, but also develops an intensive and ever-expanding field of social concepts, values, and attitudes.

In such a program it is not necessary, or even desirable, to attempt individual instruction. By the very nature of an activity program, small groups are formed through committee work in classroom planning, as well as through following similar interests and exploring topics selected by individuals or groups. Far greater social value lies in cooperative study than in completely individual learning, for here such habits as industry, cheerfulness, responsibility, and leadership are

practiced day by day.

Authority takes on a new meaning when it is the natural concomitant of recognized group leadership bestowed by the group, rather than a power delegated from above to a leader thrust upon the group. Because such correlated learning units are directly related to the pupils' experience, they are strongly motivated, and interest is intense. In such an atmosphere of stimulated learning the teacher need have no fear of indifference or of disposition of any pupil to shirk his share of learning activities. In an activity program, interest obviates the need for individual supervision by the teacher who, when using other techniques, is often fearful that study activities may be dropped if she relaxes her vigilance. Indeed, each child is so actively a part of these study projects that he is jealous of any slight infringement on his freedom to pursue these activities. Frequently such classes assemble long before the time set for sessions to begin, and holidays or unexpected vacations are contemplated with gloom, and are often openly protested.

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#### A CLASS AT LA FAYETTE

THE activity unit is the method which has been used by the author in special classes for the mentally retarded in the La Fayette School in Chicago. In this particular unit, a girls' lower vocational center, the pupils range in IQ from 41 to 72, resulting in a range of mental ages from five years and five months to nine years and three months. Regarded in the abstract, the grade-expectancy range for this group would lie between kindergarten and beginning fourth grade. It will be evident that their actual daily classroom work, as well as cumulative achievement, far exceeds this maximum expectancy.

Our 1940-41 current social studies unit was developed around the exploration of the principles of American democracy for, although the children's ability to interpret many of the farreaching implications of any system of government is necessarily limited by their respective learning ability, yet within the range of their comprehension are many concepts of vital interest and importance in their adjustment to the changes which they meet at home and in their community-changes which are due directly or indirectly to those vast social changes now rapidly taking place. While the intensity with which these problems are studied is limited by the native intelligence of the pupils, their intense interest and their experience does much to compensate for any existing mental deficiency.

Many of the pupils in these classes are firstgeneration Americans, with close relatives across the seas, or they are refugees in this country. To them, war relief, Red Cross services, censorship of mails, and air raids are intimate problems which touch their own people. But with these problems we were not so vitally concerned as

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>See the report on an experimental study, "Teaching the Auditory Learner to Read," Chicago Schools Journal, May-June, 1938, and "Auditory Stimuli in the Improvement of Reading," Elementary English Review, April, 1941. Both are by the author of the present article.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>See "Character Education and Vocational Guidance through the Social Studies," Journal of Exceptional Children, January, 1940, and "Learning to Live in a Lower Vocational Center," Chicago Schools Journal, December, 1939. Both are by the author of the present article.

with the learning of what American democracy offers to those within its protection, how it can best preserve to its people the inherent rights which have set it apart from totalitarian governments, from its birth in revolt to its present position of comparative security and supremacy. To appreciate privileges we must know them and their sources. We must know something of the price paid through the ages for the gain of these privileges. We must know how to use them legitimately and how to preserve them unimpaired for posterity.

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#### A UNIT ON AMERICANISM

UR unit on Americanism was entitled "America's Our Country," and had as its purpose the expanding of the social concepts of the pupils of these classes beyond the immediate limits of their neighborhood, their school and its community, and their city, and developing or extending concepts of their state and nation. Subordinated to this general aim, and of necessity included within it, are minor objectives of a specific nature: (1) the understanding of the basic principles of democratic government; (2) elementary understanding of the development of our safeguards of individuals liberties; (3) acquaintance with the stories of our nation around which have been built many of the traditions which bind us to our ideals; (4) a knowledge of geographical factors in America and of man's adaptation to them, for this adaptation is responsible for the wide variety of industries, the extensive differences between rural and urban community life, and many other significant geographical and industrial phenomena in American life today.

#### THE SOCIAL SETTING

Last year the discussion of the likelihood of participation of the United States in the Second World War was ever-present among the pupils. These discussions were frequently based on morning newspaper reports which even the most retarded had managed to read in whole or part before leaving for school, on late radio flashes and news broadcasts, and on opinions of older brothers and sisters, fathers, mothers, uncles and aunts. The major problem of participation of the United States in the war developed other related topics: the effect of the war on the number of marriages, the possibility (before the introduction and subsequent passage of the Burke-Wadsworth bill) of conscription of brothers, then in various CCC camps, and of

fathers on WPA projects; the work of the Red Cross in direct war relief as well as rehabilitation in natural disasters.

In the fall the study of some pertinent phase of this vast topic was suggested by the class to the teacher, and together we planned this unit. Because understanding of our national problems was considered more vital to adequate comprehension of the issues than the study of problems overseas would be, we decided, as one of the girls put it, "To find out why we like America, rather than why we don't like some other countries."

Many of the projects undertaken by the children in this study were individual; frequently five or six presented their plans for a group undertaking, and not unusual was the phenomenon of an idea, begun as an individual activity, gaining the interest of several others, and spreading in spontaneous enthusiasm until it became the project of the entire group. Upon the request of an individual or a group who met a problem which needed further elaboration and some interchange of ideas in a group discussion, the entire class became a round-table for the study of puzzling problems. These discussions were often pupil-managed, although occasionally the teacher took the lead, especially if the avenue of exploration was entirely new. The teacher always participated, but unless she was the director of the discussion did so only in the same capacity as any other member of the group.

The teacher's main function in such a program is to direct the classes to helpful materials, either in the public library or the room library, setting aside reserve shelves in the latter of those materials which are most pertinent to the problem; to put at the disposal of the class special bulletins or contributions made available for the study by interested individuals and groups outside the class; to select and schedule movingpicture films and stereopticon slides; to provide pictures, maps, and diagrammatic material. She also serves to coordinate and unify the many branches of study and investigation entered by individuals and groups in the class. Finally, she is always at hand to aid in the many informal discussions and questions which are a very important part of all learning activities.

#### OUTCOMES

OUTSIDE the social studies concepts, habits, and attitudes which this unit helped to develop, it also improved skills in other academic fields. In the field of reading there were gains in vocabulary development, sentence and para-

graph comprehension, ability to get the central idea from informative material, use of study and outline guides, and related skills in the use of the dictionary, the encyclopedia, and other references. Beyond all these separate skills, there was a gain in joy in reading and in the habit of turning to books and other printed sources for information and experiences that must be had vicariously. Likewise in oral and written language there was learning and practice of diction, of correct subordination of the unimportant to the important in organization of material for reports, of ability to ask and answer simple questions, of writing of business letters with their concomitant skills of paragraph unity, correct grammar, punctuation, and spelling.

Subjectively, the results of the gains of this unit are evidenced by the complexity of the activities which the pupils can now carry on, and by the enthusiasm with which they pursue them. Objectively, the results may be gauged by the fact that these pupils, who at entrance to this lower vocational center could not exceed poor first-grade reading achievement, at the end of a maximum of one year's instruction showed a range in reading levels from 3.3 to 10.9 on

standardized tests.

The academic activities included the planning for special celebration of special holidays and festivals; the development of special topics, such as the symbolism of the flag, the story of the "Star Spangled Banner," the significance of the 1940 presidential campaign, the administration of the Burke-Wadsworth bill; the reading for information and pleasure, and the resultant compiling of bibliographies on the social studies topic; the learning of the meanings of difficult words found in the pledge of allegiance to the flag, the national anthem, the American's Creed, the Declaration of Independence, and the preamble to the Constitution of the United States, and also the first ten amendments thereto; the hearing of special talks by persons in direct contact with particular phases of our study. The use of maps, charts, diagrams, and graphs were also very valuable.

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Among the art projects were contributions of weaving and basketry, moccasin-making, beadwork, and clay-making to the display of the Indian ways which have helped to mold our habits, customs, and traditions; the making and binding of books relating to special projects; wall friezes on international Red Cross services; preparing and keeping up-to-date study and club bulletin boards; chalk drawings, posters, and stereopticon slides on various phases of American democracy; dioramas of colonial beginnings of democratic government, and special decorations for holiday celebrations, to mention but a few

of our successful activities.

On civic education:

In the first place, we have to keep our attention focused on the definite qualities of good citizenship which we expect a citizen of the United States to embody. We need to organize our instruction in a direct and frontal attack on the specific qualities which are considered as essential, and in doing so need to drop off many of the activities now carried on in school which have only an indirect or assumed relation to the growth of the good citizen. In the second place, we need to keep our attention on evolving society more than we have; we need to study social trends and ascertain their implications for the life of tomorrow. Especially in the present situation do we need to reorient much of our instruction on the problems of making and keeping the peace which must sometime come. In the third place, we need to think of civic education in far broader terms than we have thought of it. We need to effect a wider coordination of agencies focused on the education of the good citizen, and through that wider influence to increase the effectiveness both of civic education and of social welfare.

HOWARD E. WILSON

At Indianapolis, November, 1941

# A Course in Senior Problems

Paul S. Chance

THE course in senior Problems at Roose-velt High School, Los Angeles, was designed primarily to focus directly on the growth and development of the individual. It illustrates the widespread tendency of progressive schools to depart from the traditional theological, informational, and disciplinary curriculum to more functional teaching—with units, projects, and activities as broad as life itself, and unhampered by departmental lines.

When the Senior Problems course was introduced at Roosevelt High School, it was agreed that its content would not be prescribed in advance, but that it would be developed cooperatively by teachers and pupils, unit by unit. A committee of eight teachers, the principal, two vice-principals, and a counselor made the initial plans. This group agreed that the course should be required of all twelfth-year pupils; that no separate grades should be assigned; and that there should be four broad areas of instruction, which for the sake of convenience were given the following names:

Personality and Family Problems

Leisure Interests

Social Arts

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Consumer Education.

Each of the four areas was allotted ten weeks of class time. At the end of each ten-week period the teachers were shifted so that each class received its instruction alternately from a man and a woman. Occasionally music and art teachers were also brought in to assist in the work devoted to "leisure interests." Throughout the school year there were held weekly luncheon meetings attended by teachers, members of the administrative staff, and class representatives.

This account of an effort to deal with the problems of youth, and to enlist the cooperation of students in course planning, comes from a former teacher in the Roosevelt High School, Los Angeles, who is now coordinator of social studies in the College of Education, University of Southern California, and supervisor of cadet teachers in the teacher-training high schools and junior high schools of Los Angeles City.

#### TOPICS STUDIED

DURING the first few days that teacher and class met together, they devoted themselves to planning the topics to be studied and organizing the class for activities pertaining to the units to be presented. The following is the condensed outline of the course as agreed upon by teachers and pupils. The outlines served as a point of departure for pupil and teacher participation rather than as a definite program.

#### Personality and Family Relationships

- I. Learning About Ourselves
  - 1. Heredity and environment
  - 2. Elementary psychology and personality problems
- II. The Fundamental Social Unit, the Family: Its Background and Development
- III. The Institution of Marriage
  1. Preparation for marriage
  - 2. Family life and law: marriage and divorce
  - 8. Sex education
- IV. Relationships Within the Family

#### Leisure Interests and Activities in Home and Community

- I. Leisure Time
  - 1. Changing attitudes
  - 2. Changing extent of participation in leisure activities
  - 3. Types of play interests
- II. Art in Leisure Time
- III. The Enjoyment of Drama as Leisure
- IV. Music in Leisure Time
  - 1. For the group as a whole
  - 2. For small groups of students with previous specialized musical training
- V. Motion Picture Evaluation
- VI. Nature Study in Leisure Time
- VII. Radio Listening
- VIII. Rhythmics
  - 1. Current dance programs
  - Visit places of interest for folklore, costumes, and dances
  - 3. Singing of folk songs

#### Social Arts

- I. How Can the Home Serve as a Background for the Individuals?
  - 1. Culture in the home
  - 2. Conversation in the home
  - 3. Self-expression
  - 4. Privacy
  - 5. Personal appearance, including health
  - 6. Res
  - 7. Desirable place to entertain
  - 8. Mental and spiritual development in the home

- II. How Can Family Activities Contribute to the Successful Home?
  - 1. Courtesies
  - 2. Meals at home
  - 3. Budgeting of time for evenings, Saturdays, and Sundays
- III. How Can the Home Serve as a Center for Entertaining Friends?
  - 1. Duties of host, hostess, guest
  - 2. Flower arrangement
  - 3. Conversation
  - 4. Personality
  - 5. Planning social activities
- IV. How Can Manners and Convention Contribute to the Social Life and Personality of the Individual?
  - 1. Introductions and salutations
  - 2. Invitations, acceptances
  - 3. Courtesy in school
  - 4. Dancing and dating
  - 5. Conduct in the theater and in other public build-
  - 6. Social correspondence
  - 7. Travel conventions
  - 8. Table manners in public places
  - 9. Customs of gift giving and the wedding

#### Consumer Education

- I. Better Buymanship
  - 1. Need for consumer education
  - 2. Frauds and their detection
  - 3. Aids to the consumer
  - 4. Use of credit
  - 5. Budgeting
- II. Investments
  - 1. Wise spending of one's income
  - 2. Essentials of a good investment
  - 3. Forms of investment
- III. Law and the Family
  - 1. History of law
  - 2. Property ownership
  - 3. Contracts
  - 4. Negotiable instruments
  - 5. Buying

#### PUPIL AND TEACHER REACTIONS

DURING the first year that the course was offered, a questionnaire prepared by teachers and pupils was given to pupils in all of the Senior Problems classes. Of the 838 responses, 328 indicated that the course was "superior" to others taken in high school, while only 69 rated it "below" other courses and 441 thought it was "average." Sixty-nine per cent of the group agreed

that the course should be "required of all pupils."

Among the values in the course which the pupils emphasized were: the opportunity "to discuss things not discussed anywhere else"; learning to respect the opinions of others; increased knowledge about personality, sex, etiquette, and use of leisure time; and the opportunity "to work on what I please as long as worth while."

Pupil criticisms were directed at: lack of planning and organization in the course; insufficient time to deal fully with subjects studied; too much library work; too little library work; lack of frankness in pupil discussions. The policy of not giving grades for work done in the course was approved by 473 pupils but opposed by 308.

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Although only 68 per cent of the pupils testified that so far they felt that they had participated in planning the course, 83 per cent agreed in principle that pupils should cooperate with teachers in planning it, and an additional 12 per cent thought that plans should be made by pupils only. Less than one pupil in twenty declared that course planning should be the sole responsibility of the teacher.

To the teachers it appears that the course is broad enough to include the general needs of all adolescents, and yet offers opportunity to satisfy the specific needs of individuals. It grows out of and deals with normal living. It provides for the study and the practice of democratic procedures. It enables pupils to discover and to correct weaknesses, and to check on their improvement.

Teachers are selected for such personal qualities as ability to cooperate and to recognize and meet pupil needs. They too have an opportunity to evaluate their own work and to be evaluated by others, for pupil reactions vary from class to class. Some flexibility in teaching assignments is possible.

On the whole, the course, in its organization, in its procedures, and in the competence of its teachers, seems well adapted to its purpose of meeting the needs of adolescents in an ever-changing democratic society.

#### On civics:

The civics teacher should be judged less on the basis of the proficiency of his students on examinations and more on the basis of the contribution which those students will make to the political welfare of the community.

Most civics courses are more a preview of college political science than preparation for civic life.

At Indianapolis, November, 1941

LEONORA COFER

# Recent Books Useful for Cultural History

J. Montgomery Gambrill

THE striking growth of interest in cultural history, both in its broader meaning of a study of integral society and in the more restricted sense of the study of intellectual and esthetic development as related to changing social conditions, is conspicuously apparent in the publications lists of recent months. The textbooks for school and college in all historical fields increasingly show this interest; note, for example, in Hutton Webster, History of Civilization, and Bossenbrook and others, A History of Western Civilization (both Heath, 1940), the chapters or sections on such topics as The Enlightenment, Romanticism, and Realism as well as the synthesis and the comprehensive views of

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Concepts and theories, definitions and problems, have been discussed, not without some confusion and groping, but also to some extent through organized effort. The American Historical Association, in 1939 and 1940, under the leadership of Professors Eugene N. Anderson and Merle Curti, devoted a substantial part of the program of its annual meeting to cultural history. The papers read at the December, 1939, sessions have been collected under the editorship of Professor Caroline F. Ware and published as The Cultural Approach to History (New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. ix, 359. \$3.50). The thirty-eight authors represent not only history but such fields as anthropology, psychology, geography, sociology, statistics, economics, literature, and folklore. The articles vary greatly in length, viewpoint, and inevitably in quality, although in the main they are of high merit. The essays and discussions are grouped in six Parts of unequal length: One, "Techniques

of Cultural Analysis," includes the views of a cultural anthropologist, a social psychologist, and a psychiatrist; Two, "Cultural Groups"; Three, "Cultural Institutions," includes three types of family, the business corporation, the first industrial city (Manchester, 1780-1850), and the German army of the Second Reich; Four, "The Cultural Role of Ideas"; Five, "The Dynamics of Cultural Change," treats the industrial city as a center of cultural change, "The Modernization of China and Japan," and "The Flowering of New England" (five papers); Six, "Sources and Materials for the Study of Cultural History," discusses local history, population data, folklore and folk music, documentary photographs (nine illustrations), and dialect areas, settlement areas and culture areas (eight charts).

The Editor's Introduction of 16 pages is important in itself and because of the unavoidable absence of uniformity of concept, emphasis, and viewpoint in the many papers. Beginning with a sketch of the successive stages of modern historical writing, Miss Ware speaks of the "objective" school desiring to "let the facts speak for themselves," the growing awareness of the question "Which facts?" and the writing of economic and social history, the pressing problems of selection and integration of data, the increasing recognition of the historian's controlling frame of reference, his need to utilize all the related social sciences to interpret historical development, and at last his desire to recover more of the story of the "inarticulate and semi-articulate masses." She then argues that anthropology "has necessarily freed itself from the frame of reference of Western culture, in order to apprehend any part or any event." The claim to freedom from bias is highly dubious, but the essential point is that the cultural approach for the study of history implies the focus of attention upon "the place of the subject studied in the total structure of the society."

An index of seven double-column pages adds substantially to the volume's usefulness.

This brief review article can deal only with representative books; an inclusive list of such volumes would be very long. The reviewer is professor of history in Columbia University.

Historiography and Urbanization (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins, 1941. Pp. 220. \$2.50) edited by Eric F. Goldman, is a series of nine documented essays in honor of Professor W. Stull Holt. Four of these deal with urban influence, one with colonial Carolina low country as a subject, another on Lexington as a frontier metropolis, a third on the election of 1860, and a fourth "On the Dangers of An Urban Interpretation of History" in which William Diamond discusses critically the use of the concept "urban" by Professor Schlesinger and other historians. There are very interesting and stimulating articles on "Hildreth, Draper, and 'Scientific History'," "School Histories of the Middle Period," "Edward Eggleston: Pioneer in Social History," and "Middle States Regionalism and American Historiography: A Suggestion." The volume is a contribution to American cultural history and to the techniques of study in that field.

ALBERT GUERARD'S Preface to World Literature (New York: Holt, 1940. Pp. xv, 536. \$2.80) is interesting, stimulating and practically helpful to the teacher of history seeking orientation and orderly approach to the vast field of literature-neither an anthology nor an historical survey but a Preface as the title indicates. World literature he defines as the "works enjoyed in common, ideally by all mankind, practically by our Western group of civilization," and would thus include Mother Goose and Grimm, the Bible, Homer and Shakespeare, Ibsen and Tolstoy, and hundreds of others that have a wider interest and appeal than race or land or time. The first eight chapters deal with such preliminaries as translation, the problem of making lists of "best books," the relation of folklore and literature, taste, the essence of literature, and prose and verse. Then follow chapters on fundamental tendencies that discuss classicism and romanticism, realism and symbolism; five chapters on genres, or conventional grouping of lyric, epic, drama; and a clear and suggestive discussion of the theory of historical periods with a survey and brief synopsis. The social approach to literature and the problem of criticism are treated at length as the main problems in world literature. Appendices provide useful bibliographical notes; various lists of world classics, Nobel prize winners, foreign best sellers in America, books of great influence on thought and action, etc.; types of narrative fiction and of criticism; a critic's glossary. There is a full index of names and titles, but none of topics. The book is carefully and

clearly organized, with repetitions and summaries, and probably embodies a series of well-prepared lectures. The treatment is simple and concrete, with numerous specific references to literary material. Though erudite, Professor Guérard is always direct, conversational, and urbane.

THE Oxford Companion to American Literature (New York: Oxford, 1941. Pp. viii, 888. \$5.00) by James D. Hart uses the cultural approach in seeking to present "a background volume about the American mind and the American scene as reflected in our literature . . . the full background of American writing." The 2000 biographies and hundreds of other brief articles though primarily concerned with literature (popular and belletristic) include many entries for artists, scientists, religious groups and leaders, educational institutions, reformers, cities and regions, motion pictures and radio. Moving toward something like a dictionary of American history, the author, in pursuit of his laudable but ambitious aim, adds many subjects from political and military history including biographies of all the Presidents and of many generals. The reasons for the choice of soldiers and statesmen and incidents are often obscure. For example, if Mc-Clellan and Longstreet are included for their published reminiscences, why omit E. P. Alexander and his valuable Memoirs of a Confederate (1907)? If high command or able service are the test, why include Rosecrans and omit his opponent Bragg as well as Thomas who as the "Rock of Chickamauga" saved Rosecrans' army? If romantic fame is the test, why omit George Edward Pickett who led the famous charge at Gettysburg?

The choice of subjects in such a work, as well as the comparative length of articles, always raises many debatable questions, and in The Oxford Companion they are not limited to the political and military fields. There are no general articles on libraries, book selling or publishing, postal service or copyright, censorship or the Watch and Ward Society of Boston or the Society for the Suppression of Vice. Some individual printers are included but no publishers. Some libraries are mentioned, e.g., a few lines on the Boston Public and on the H. E. Huntington Libraries, but nothing on the Clements or the John Crerar. There is no article on the book clubs recently so active in the sale of books. Among current scholars H. S. Canby, Bernard DeVoto, and Norman Foerster are included, but not Perry Miller,

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a foremost authority on Puritanism and the New England mind, or Howard Mumford Jones, author of America and French Culture, 1750-1848 (1927). Contemporaries are generously treated, For Whom the Bell Tolls getting fifty per cent more space than The Scarlet Letter, yet no summary is given for Anthony Adverse. Ample space for supplying such omissions and for extending such over-brief articles as those on Woman Suffrage and The Century Association might have been saved by the omission of irrelevant military and political articles, and by avoiding such disproportions as twenty-three lines to Millard Fillmore and nine to Justin Winsor, and separate articles on very brief poems.

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It would give a wrong impression, however, to emphasize unduly the faults of choice and proportion or the errors of detail that might also be cited. Thousands of useful articles, among them goo summaries of books or parts of books, are alphabetically arranged in the 1800 columns of this volume, which is a reference work of unique value. There are articles on romanticism, realism, naturalism, stream of consciousness, escape, color, tall tale, Hudson River school, and other general subjects. A chronological index provides in parallel columns for literary history and social history an almost year-to-year record which is a great convenience in following the development of American literature. The book is handsome in format, bound in blue buckram, and printed in clear nine-point type.

UR histories of music have in the main told of the succession of composers, their lives and work, and of the evolution of forms and techniques and changing styles, sticking narrowly to the subject of music, as histories of the other arts have usually followed narrowly such a story as painting or sculpture. The need for something different has been recognized in recent years by such works as Ferguson's A History of Musical Thought (1935), Leichtentritt's brief lectures on Music, History, and Ideas (1938), and in 1940 by a general history of music that is readable and suggestive but superficial in its historical background. Paul Henry Láng's Music in Western Civilization (New York: Norton, 1941. Pp. xvi, 1107. \$3.90) is a monumental work, to which nothing comparable has been published in America, or in English. Its bibliography covers 20

pages and includes titles in half a dozen languages; the documentation and notes cover 23 pages. The text of more than a thousand pages follows the development of music as a part of the general history of culture from ancient Greece to the opening of the twentieth century, including a brief account of music in America told here and there in relation to music in Europe. The volume has twenty-nine illustrations and three maps.

It is Professor Láng's thesis that the spirit of an epoch is reflected in every field of human effort including all the arts, but he recognizes the variety and cross currents of every age. Avoiding the errors of both the "great man" theory and the purely sociological interpretation, he recognizes that "every great artist is part of his times, but he also helps to create them." Time, place, and artist must all be studied. It is not an elementary work, for its carefully stated and scrupulously qualified summaries of the general background-social, political, intellectual, and artistic-its critical judgments and suggestive interpretations, and its numerous allusions require, for full understanding and appreciation, some preliminary reading in general history and the outline story of the development of music. It is obvious that such a work, especially a pioneer study, must offer numerous opportunities for differences of judgment, taste, and interpretation, but this is unimportant when the author is scholarly, able and acute, and stimulating. A summary and critical analysis of the author's treatment even of one important epoch would fill many pages.

The table of contents of this volume, giving bare chapter titles, fills a single page. The inclusion of the 21-page outline that Dr. Láng has printed elsewhere would have added somewhat to the cost of manufacture of the book, but would have added enormously to its practical value, and would have been desirable even at a small increase of price. At least some elaboration of the present table of contents should be considered indispensable in the next impression. Author and publisher might also consider the inclusion in the book, or in a supplementary pamphlet, of a convenient list of musical compositions, illustrative of musical history as Dr. Láng interprets it and available in phonograph recordings. There

is a full index.

# Music in Junior High School American History

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AN OPPORTUNITY for giving pupils an understanding of the artistic and emotional aspects of the people of our own country through their music was recently afforded in a junior high school located near New York City. The social studies department requested the music department to contribute appropriate musical illustrations during the study of several social studies units dealing with the people of our country.

A seventh grade, studying a unit on "The American Indians", learned that music played a very important part in the lives of these primitive people. The Indians believed music to be a medium of communication between themselves and the invisible power which could be reached only by the invisible voice. Every important personal experience as well as every tribal ceremonial included music in some form. When an Indian went forth to hunt for food and clothing for himself and his family, he sang in order to receive help from the unseen power. In the presence of danger and death he asked, through song, for strength to meet his fate. Similarly, when he gathered and administered the healing herb, he resorted to song to relieve the suffering. He sang when he planted, so that he might have a full harvest. He sang in his sports and in his games, when he rejoiced and when he mourned, in every experience of life from the cradle to the grave. The musical illustrations included music for singing, such as "Ojibway Lullaby," and music for listening, such as "Flute Melody (Dakota),"

<sup>1</sup>T. P. Giddings and others, eds., *Three-Part Music* (Boston: Ginn, 1925), p. 37.

A student of music and music education at Teachers College, Columbia University, reports effective use of music in a junior high school class in American history, at the Mamaroneck Junior High School, Mamaroneck, New York. "Shuffling Feet (Sioux)," and "Happy Song (Mohawk)."<sup>2</sup>

The pupils of this seventh-grade class were interested in the Indian music they sang and heard. About half of the class asked for the repetition of the record selections. The pupils were particularly interested in the musical instruments which they had listened to, and several wanted to know whether they could learn to make a tom-tom or flute. A few boys inquired whether these instruments were on display in the Metropolitan Museum in New York. It was also brought out that the Indian tom-tom is used a great deal by the Indians for various occasions, and that the beat and the rhythm vary in accordance with the character and nature of the occasion. One girl asked whether American composers had made use of Indian music in their compositions. The pupils learned that Edward MacDowell wrote "Indian Suite" which was based on Indian themes: that Charles W. Cadman used an Indian flute call in his "From the Land of the Sky-Blue Water"; that Thurlow Lieurance used a flute call and an old Indian legend in his "By the Waters of Minnetonka"; that Rudolf Friml also used an Indian theme in the motion picture "Rose-Marie."

A motion-picture film called *Pueblo Indians of Today*,<sup>3</sup> in which several Indian songs were sung, was shown to the class. The question of suitable books on the Indians and their music was raised, and *Indian Story and Song* by Alice C. Fletcher was recommended. Another evidence of the interest aroused was the suggestion made by the class to collect various articles and pictures dealing with Indians and their music, and paste them in their music scrapbooks and on the class bulletin board. These were the means by which the

<sup>2</sup> Columbia Record No. A-3162.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> A 15-minute, 16-mm., silent film; produced in 1932; distributed by Principal Distributing Corporation, New York

<sup>4</sup> Boston: Small, Maynard, 1900.

pupils of the seventh grade learned to understand, through their music, the life and character of the American Indians.

#### COLONIAL MUSIC

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SEVENTH grade studied the unit "The A English Colonies in America." This unit dealt with the life of the Puritans of the New England colonies, and the English and Scotch-Irish settlers of the southern Appalachians. The Puritans who were struggling to establish a commonwealth were profoundly concerned with religion and sought the aid of music to give greater intensity and variety to the church service. Their music reflects the religious interest of the people of those days. One of the best-known of the church tunes was "Old Hundred," which derived its name from its association with the One Hundredth Psalm, and which may be traced back to 1551. Some of the churches allowed the first seats in the gallery to be reserved for the best singers, who were to lead in the singing of the psalms. From this custom developed church choirs. It also became necessary to abandon the lining out of psalms and to improve the singing of the congregation by teaching them to read by "rule or note." Thus, a new kind of music was developed. The musical illustrations included music for singing, such as "Old Hundred," and music for listening such as "Old Hundredth."6

The pupils also learned that the inhabitants of the southern colonies were the descendants of the settlers who emigrated from England and the lowlands of Scotland and northern Ireland. These people adhered to the English traditions of their fathers. In the sequestered mountain sections particularly, the people spoke English, not American, and the old-fashioned way in which they pronounced their words showed that they spoke the language of eighteenth-century England. They sang ballads which tell of times and places very different from their own. Their tales are concerned with knights and ladies, dukes and lords, courtships and tragedies, and events of former days. The musical illustrations included music for singing, such as "Billy Boy," and "Begone, Dull Care,"7 and music for listening such as "Barbara Allen," and "Sweet Kitty Clover."

The pupils of this seventh-grade class listened to the music of this unit with a great deal of interest. A boy inquired whether American composers had composed any music descriptive of Puritan New England. At the next meeting of the class the pupils reported that Edward MacDowell had written a composition entitled "1620," and that Otto Luening had written a "Fantasy on a Hymn Tune by William Billings." A few pupils asked for further information on the music of early New England, and History of Music in New England by George Hood<sup>10</sup> was recommended.

The pupils kept scrapbooks in which they pasted articles and pictures dealing with the life of the Puritans of New England. With respect to American composers who made use of the music of the southern colonies in their compositions, some of the pupils informed the class that John Powell wrote "In Old Virginia," "Natchez-on-the Hill," and "At the Fair." The pupils asked for the repetition of the record selections and listened attentively to the old ballads. One boy had tuned in on a broadcast in which these ballads were sung and told the class about the program. One girl brought a list of several ballads sung at her home, and volunteered to sing "The Little Mohee" for the class. Among the books found to be most instructive, English Folk Songs from the Southern Appalachians compiled by Cecil Sharp<sup>11</sup> was given preference. As in the case of the New England songs this class put into their scrapbooks material dealing with the music of the southern colonies.

#### MUSIC OF THE REVOLUTION

N EIGHTH grade studied the unit "The ⚠ Struggle for American Independence." This class learned that the patriotic spirit of the colonists was revealed in the songs they sang. These early patriotic songs were written to fit the rhythm and melody of well-known English songs. The song "My Days Have Been so Wondrous Free," well known in those days, was written by the patriot Francis Hopkinson, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. The bestknown of the songs of this period, however, is "Yankee Doodle," sung by the British at the beginning of the war in ridicule of the Continentals. By a strange irony of fate, "Yankee Doodle," was played by the American troops at the surrender of General Burgoyne at Saratoga in 1777, and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Descant on Favorite Hymns (Chicago: Hall and Mc-Creary, 1938), p. 17.

Victor Record No. 21936.

Twice 55 Community Songs: The Green Book (Boston: Birchard, 1930), nos. 39 and 14 respectively.

Victor Record No. 4023.

Victor Record No. 21751.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup> George Hood, History of Music in New England (Boston: Birchard, 1929), nos. 144 and 143 respectively.

<sup>11 2</sup> vols. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1939.

later at the surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown. The pupils sang "Yankee Doodle," and listened to "My Days Have Been So Wondrous Free," and "Yankee Doodle." <sup>13</sup>

The stirring music pleased the entire class and the pupils asked for a repetition of both recorded selections. The music of "Yankee Doodle" as played by piccolo and drums impressed the class particularly. The pupils recalled the rollicking words of this tune which so well expressed the spirit of the undisciplined Americans, gathered together in the camp. The students compared the tune "Yankee Doodle" with the song "Over There," showing how the songs in each case reflected the spirit of the people. Several pupils who inquired about books dealing with the period and its music were referred to Music That Washington Knew by William Arms Fisher.14 These students reported to the class that among the early American composers of American music, John Dickinson who wrote "Liberty Song," and William Billings who wrote "Chester," were wellknown. Some of the girls became interested in the old-time dances such as the minuet, gavotte, and cotillion. This interest led to further study of the minuet, which was danced by four couples.

#### FRONTIER MUSIC

ANOTHER eighth grade studied the unit "Westward Expansion," dealing with the life of the hardy pioneers on the long trails to California in search for gold in 1849, and with the life of the cowboys of the West. The '49 songs gained a wide popularity during the brief period of the gold rush. These songs reflect the vigorous and materialistic spirit of this period. Many of the songs are of the music hall origin, but the best-known were parodies of "Camptown Races" and "O Susannah" by Stephen Foster. The parody of "O Susannah" contains the following lines:

I'll scrape the mountains clean, old girl,

I'll drain the rivers dry,

I'm off for California, Susannah don't you cry.

O Susannah, don't you cry for me,

I'm off to California with my washbowl on my knee.

On occasions when there was dancing, the "Arkansas Traveller," "Pop Goes the Weasel," and "Turkey in the Straw" were the favorite tunes. The pupils sang the '49 version of "O

Susannah" from song sheets especially mimeographed for this unit by several members of the class, and listened to "Turkey in the Straw" and "Days of Forty-Nine." 16

The cowboy songs are for the most part parodies of old ballads or popular songs of the day. The pupils sang the "Old Chisholm Trail" and "Dogie Song,"<sup>17</sup> and listened to "Whoopee-ti-yi-yo"<sup>18</sup> and "Get Along Little Dogie."<sup>19</sup>

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All the songs sung by the children, as well as all the recorded selections, had to be repeated. One boy liked the words of "O Susannah," because they described so well the work of the gold-seekers of '49. Another boy who inquired about books containing the songs for this unit was referred to Cowboy Songs and Other Frontier Ballads by John and Alan Lomax.<sup>20</sup> The class kept scrapbooks in which they pasted articles dealing with the music and life of the West.

#### SELECTED LIST OF RECORD CATALOGS

1. Victor Records for Elementary Schools: A Comprehensive Graded List of Victor Records for Music Appreciation and Integration for the Elementary Grades. RCA Manufacturing Company, Inc., Educational Department, RCA Victor Division, Camden, New Jersey, 1937.

2. Victor Record Catalog: Complete Catalog of Victor Records for 1940-41. RCA Manufacturing Company, Inc., Camden, New Jersey, 1940. This general catalog contains a great many educational records cross-indexed and classified.

3. Catalog of Columbia Records. Columbia Recording Corporation, Bridgeport, Connecticut. Containing complete information concerning the compositions, artists, and composers.

4. Darrell, R. D., compiler. The Gramophone Shop Encyclopedia of Recorded Music. With a foreword by Lawrence Gilman. The Gramophone Shop Inc., 18 East 48th Street, New York City, 1936.

5. Hall, David. The Record Book: A Music Lover's Guide to the World of the Phonograph. New York: Smith and Durrell, 1940. Evaluates thousands of records, as well as the composers and their works; encompasses most of the material in the domestic catalogs.

<sup>18</sup> Victor Record No. 22131.

<sup>36</sup> Victor Record No. 21627.

Twice 55 Community Songs: The Brown Book (Boston: Birchard, 1929), Nos. 144 and 143 respectively.

<sup>1</sup> Victor Record No. 24546.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Victor Record No. V-40016.

New York: Macmillan, 1938.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Victor Record No. 4010.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Victor Record No. 20166. <sup>14</sup> Boston: Ditson, 1931.

# Notes and News

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#### Social Studies Meetings

The following list contains summary information concerning meetings of social studies teachers scheduled for the spring of 1942. In parentheses are given the name and address of the person from whom advance copies of the program may be secured.

#### National

National Council for the Social Studies and Mississippi Valley Historical Association. Lexington, Kentucky. (Anna B. Peck, University High School, Lexington) May 9.

#### New England

New England Council for the Social Studies. Springfield, Massachusetts. (Victor E. Pitkin, Parker Junior High School, Reading, Massachusetts) March 13-14.

#### Middle States

Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers. Frederick, Maryland: Frederick High School, Francis Scott Key Hotel, and Hood College. Theme: "The American Way of Life." (Paul O. Carr, Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D. C.) April 24-25.

The History Teachers' Association of Maryland and the Social Science Teachers' Round Table of Washington will meet concurrently with the Middle States Association at Frederick, April 24-25.

New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies. Central District—Trenton: State Teachers College, March 7. Northern District—Upper Montclair: State Teachers College, March 14. Southern District—Glassboro: State Teachers College, March 24.

#### Southeastern States

South Carolina Education Association, History Department. Columbia. Theme: "The Teaching of Social Studies in Wartime." Speaker: Erling M. Hunt. (J. P. Coates, 1510 Gervais Street, Columbia) 10 A.M., March 20.

Georgia Council for the Social Studies. Savannah. (Bernice Freeman, High School, La Grange) April 23-25.

Florida Education Association, Social Studies Depart-

ment. Tampa. April 9-11.

Tennessee Council for the Social Studies. Nashville: First Presbyterian Church. Theme: "Latin America." (Eugene H. Sloan, High School, Lebanon) 8:30 A.M. and 1:00 P.M., April 3.

Kentucky Council for the Social Studies. Louisville. (Howard W. Robey, Ahrens Trade High School, Louisville) April 16-18.

#### Old Northwest

Indiana Council for the Social Studies. Indianapolis: Hotel Lincoln. Program and business meeting, with first election of officers under revised constitution. (K. B. Thurston, University High School, Bloomington) April 18.

Illinois Council for the Social Studies. Decatur. (Donald R. Alter, State Teachers College, Charleston) April 24-25.

Chicago Council for the Social Studies, with the collaboration of the Suburban Councils. Chicago. Speakers include: Roy A. Price (Mrs. Lucie H. Schacht, Chicago Teachers College) March 14.

Wisconsin History Teachers Association. Madison: Memorial Union, University of Wisconsin. "Conference on the Teaching of the Social Studies." (Cecilia Howe, High School, Janesville) May 2.

#### Western States

Texas State Teachers Association, District 5, Social Studies Section. Dallas. Speaker: Roy A. Price. (Myrtle Roberts, Woodrow Wilson High School, Dallas) March 7.

The Dallas District Council for the Social Studies is collaborating in the sponsorship of the foregoing meeting.

Kansas City Council for the Social Studies. Kansas City, Missouri. Theme: "Evaluation in the Social Studies." Speaker: Roy A. Price. 6:30 P.M., March 12.

Kansas Council for the Social Studies. Topeka: Topeka High School. Theme: "New Challenges to the Social Studies." Speaker: Robert E. Keohane. (Robena Pringle, Topeka High School, Topeka) April 18.

Minnesota Council for the Social Studies. Minneapolis: University of Minnestota. Theme: "The Teacher of Social Studies in Time of War." Speakers include: Harold Deutsch, Earl Latham, Theodore Brameld, E. B. Wesley. (Edwin R. Carr, 226 Burton Hall, University of Minnesota) April 10-11.

#### Detroit

On January 15, under the auspices of the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club, Dr. Ernest Horn of the University of Iowa, spoke to 300 elementary school social studies teachers on the subject of "Language and Meaning in the Social Studies," and at a dinner meeting of the Social Studies Club he spoke on the subject of "Neglected Areas in the Social Studies."

The paid membership of the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club was 450 on February 1.

C.C.B.

#### Courses of Study

Missouri. The volume on Social Studies, Bulletin 4A in "Missouri at Work on the Public School Curriculum: Secondary School Series," was issued late in 1941 by Lloyd W. King, State Superintendent of Instruction. Section I, Introduction, deals with purposes of social studies teaching and gives some 15 pages to professional and classroom readings and aids. Section II outlines, in 140 pages, an Illustrative Course of Study in Personal and Community Problems for Grade Nine"; Section III, in 73 pages, an "Illustrative Course of Study in World History and Problems for Grade Ten"; Section IV, in 67

pages, an "Illustrative Course of Study in American History for Grade Eelven"; and Section V, in 265 pages, an "Illustrative Course of Study in Contemporary American Problems for Grade Twelve."

The units include an overview, a statement of objectives, teaching suggestions, an outline of the "scope and sequence of the unit," bibliographies of readings for pupils, pupil activities, and evaluation suggestions.

The 594 pages constitute an impressive example of cooperative course-of-study construction, and offer valuable guidance and stimulation to

social studies teachers.

Baltimore. The Department of Education of the City of Baltimore has published (1941) a 726-page Social Studies and Science course of study for the kindergarten and Grades One, Two, and Three. It develops "Units in detail" on the school, farm, transportation, and circus for the kindergarten; on school, home, and community life for Grade One; on the community now and long ago, and on farm, Eskimo, and Indian life for Grade Two; and on modern, in contrast to earlier, Maryland life, on Baltimore as a community, and our relationships with Mexico, Brazil, the Philippines, and China for Grade Three.

Background material, with stories and poems, lists of records, songs, and pictures, games, and even some recipes are included.

Erie. The School District of the City of Erie, Pennsylvania, has published The Course of Study in the Social Studies for Secondary Schools, Grades Seven through Twelve. Grade Seven studies World Backgrounds, in nine units; Grade Eight, American History, in eight units, of which the eighth is "Latin America"; Grade Nine studies Community Civics, in six units; Grade Ten, World History, in thirteen units; Grade Eleven, American History, in six units; and Grade Twelve, Problems of Democracy, for which nineteen units are outlined with the expectation that a selection will be made.

Six units for ninth-grade Community Civics are developed, with an outline of content, suggestions for activities, thought questions, and references.

Know Erie, a 59-page compendium of information about the development, business, and community life of Erie and Erie County, compiled by Emma Bark, a junior high school civics teacher, has also been published for use in the program.

Ithaca. A Course of Study in Social Studies for the Seventh Grade, prepared by committees of teachers under the direction of Howard R. Anderson, has been published by the Ithaca, New York, Board of Education. Four units are developed: "I Become Acquainted with My Communities" (29 pages); "We Visit Our British Neighbors and Have Dealings with Them" (21 pages); "We Visit Latin America—Our Neighbors to the South" (22 pages); and "We Visit Our Neighbors Across the Pacific" (22 pages). Content is fully outlined, study guide questions and activities are listed, pupil and teacher bibliographies included; and visual and auditory aids suggested. Revisions for Grades Eight and Nine are in progress.

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#### A Cleveland Report

An attractive seven-page description of a social studies program in operation appears in the *Annual Report* of the Superintendent of Public Schools for 1939-40. Related areas of guidance, radio instruction, visual aids, and community centers, are also treated in the volume.

The Board of Education has also published (1941), through the John C. Winston Company, Cleveland: Our Community and Its Government, by F. Leslie Speir, head of social studies in the Thomas Jefferson Junior High School. It includes a wealth of information pertinent to ninthgrade study of community civics. Nearly sixty pages are devoted to education in Cleveland.

#### Community Affairs Test

The Cooperative Test Service, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York, has published a "Cooperative Community Affairs Test, Form R," originally developed by Roy A. Price and Robert F. Steadman for the Regents' Inquiry into the Cost and Character of Education in the State of New York (see Howard E. Wilson, Education for Citizenship. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938. Pp. 41-49). In view of the discouraging findings of the Regents' Inquiry, it is hoped that the test, which can serve as a worksheet as well as a measure of knowledge, will stimulate teaching in the field of community affairs and provide a starting point for classroom discussion and study.

#### On the War

The magazines continue to give much attention to many phases of the war. A few articles that are readily accessible to most teachers and pupils may be noted.

Harpers for February carried Keith Ayling's "The Truth about Air Power," which makes the case for an American five-continent air force. In the same issue is John Dos Passos' "England in the Great Lull," including some description of air-raid damage, and Edwin Muller's "On Board the Bismarck," a highly dramatic story, also condensed for the February Readers' Digest, of the sinking of that German vessel.

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The National Geographic for February includes Frederick Simpich's timely "Facts about the Philippines," accompanied by illustrations and a map.

Fortune, less accessible but rich in illustrations, devotes some of its February pages to Japan, to the Middle East, and to tank tactics.

The January issue of *Fortune* includes an article on the Presidency, with special attention to war powers. John Chamberlain in an article on labor argues that "if labor wins the closed shop its rank and file stands to lose democracy." One illustrated section of the issue is concerned with Bolivia.

The Atlantic for February includes Marquis Childs' "Weapons from Waste," with incidental attention to some possible services of school-age youth. In "Russia: an American Problem," William Henry Chamberlin attempts to outline a realistic program for cooperation with the U.S.S.R.

Foreign Policy Reports for January 15 was devoted to the increasingly critical problem of "U.S. Shipping and the War." The Far Eastern Survey for January 26 gave attention to "Yunnan: Province of the Burma Road," to "Japanese in the United States," and to rubber. The February 9 issue summarizes the progress of the war and Anglo-American cooperation in the East. "Japan's Drive Against the Netherlands East Indies" and an article on the military importance of Burma to the Allies are also included. Recent issues of the Geographic School Bulletins, always usefully illustrated, range from Singapore to Moscow, from St. Pierre and Miquelon to Darwin, and from Alaska to Malta.

Current History continues to publish authoritative reviews of recent happenings that are all but indispensable to teachers and students of current events. In the February number, articles appeared on "The War in the Pacific," "On the Home Front," "Why Japan Chose to Fight," "Our Ally—China," "Hispanic America and the War," and "Hitler's Failure in Europe." A selection of American War Documents and a chronology of events are also included.

"The Roots of the Pacific Conflict" are traced one hundred years back in an article by Nathaniel Peffer in the February issue of Asia. In the same magazine Hawaii is vividly portrayed with anecdotes and flashes of local color in "Hawaii In The Crisis."

Survey Graphic for February takes up another strategic location in the article "Alaska—Northern Front," characterized as an airway over the top of the world to Russia by Richard L. Neuberger. "American Speed-Up" by Beulah Amidon deals with the problems that accompany the adaptation of 10,000,000 new industrial workers—a number anticipated for next December. Also included, with pictures, is the description of another source of rubber in "Rubber from Western Weeds."

The American Mercury continues to feature the words of Major Alexander P. deSeversky who sees "Victory Through Air Power," air force being our only offensive measure. William Bayles also relates what RAF damage has done to the Reich in "Bombs Fall on Germany."

#### On the Peace

Fortune for January carries an analysis of the Atlantic Charter by John Foster Dulles, and summarizes Hitler's economic ambitions and achievements to date.

Vital Speeches for February 1 included Sumner Welles' address of January 15 at Rio de Janeiro under the title "Lesson Taught to the Nations: Imperative Need for Unity."

On the side of sympathetic understanding is an article by William Henry Chamberlin in the *American Mercury*. His "Who Are These Japanese?" describes Japanese racial characteristics and what war reactions to expect.

Charles N. Spinks pleads for the equality of the Asiatics in "Repeal Chinese Exclusion" in Asia for February.

#### The World Almanac

The World Almanac, carrying over 900 pages of close-packed statistics, summaries, outlines, and chronologies on national and international, on political, social, economic, and cultural, and on military, educational, and scientific topics, is easily the cheapest and most useful reference book to which teachers can turn. The 1942 volume appears in its fifty-seventh year of publication. It is issued annually by the New York World-Telegram, 125 Barclay Street, New York, and costs 60 cents a copy, or 70 cents by mail.

# Government Publications, and Pamphlets

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#### On Latin America

AT THE discussion meeting of social studies teachers held as part of the conference on "The High School Teacher and the War" at Teachers College, Columbia University, on January 24, it was agreed that there was a real need for more and better teaching about both Latin America and the Far East. Yet it was recognized that there is a deplorable lack of teaching materials in these fields, and that for several years we will have to rely on pamphlet material. Some such material on Latin America is available, as the following titles or lists of free or inexpensive

publications indicate.

Two of the Foreign Policy Association's Headline Books deal with Latin America: Delia Goetz and Varian Fry, Good Neighbors (1939) and John I. B. McCulloch, Challenge to the Americas (1940). The Americas-South and North is a special number of Survey Graphic brought out in March, 1941. It contains over 100 pages of timely, well-illustrated material. Excellent bulletin-board material on the Western Hemisphere, in the form of a 16 x 21-inch paper poster entitled "Agriculture and the Americas," can be obtained from the Division of Information, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, U. S. Department of Agriculture. The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace has issued a 13-page mimeographed pamphlet on "Our Neighbors-North and South" (5 cents).

From the Pan American Union a teacher can obtain the following publications: (1) Labor Trends and Social Welfare in Latin America: 1939-1940 (1941, 69 pages, free). (2) Selected List of Books in English on Latin America (January, 1939, 55 pages, 25 cents). (3) Selected List of Books and Magazine Articles on Hemispheric Defense (Series 24, 14 pages, 25 cents). (4) Recent Trends in Inter-American Relations (Series 21,

1939, 52 pages, 50 cents).

The World Peace Foundation, 40 Mount Vernon Street, Boston, has issued a series of pamphlets, two of which—Percy W. Bidwell, Economic Defense of Latin America and Clarence H. Haring, Argentina and the United States—deal with Latin America (paper, 25 cents; cloth, 50 cents). In view of the recent developments at Rio de Janeiro, the latter is especially timely. It is divided into five sections, plus a preface and selected bibliography: "Political Evolution of the Argentine Nation," "Relations with the United States," "Cattle and Grain," "Trade, Industry and Investment," "Argentina and the Democracies."

South America's Trade is a free pamphlet issued by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. It can be obtained, from the Washington office, in limited quantities for classroom use.

The Council for Social Action of the Congregational and Christian Churches, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York, of which more mention will be made later, has a series of 32-page, 10-cent pamphlets—which have now been reduced in price to 3 cents in quantities of ten or more. Two of these, both by Hubert Herring, deal with Latin America: (1) Toward an Understanding of Mexico (1935), "presenting the people of Mexico, their land, church and school, and something of their . . . history." (2) Pan Americanism: Can We Win It? (1939), "a realistic approach to a vital problem by an author who is widely acclaimed as an authority on Latin America."

The American Council on Public Affairs has published Richard F. Behrendt's Fascist Penetration in Latin America (25 cents). This is a 30-page, well-documented pamphlet, of value as reference, not suitable for general reading on the

secondary level.

Mordecai Ezekiel, Economic Adviser to the Secretary of Agriculture, is the author of Economic Relations Between the Americas (Carnegie Endowment, 405 West 117th Street, New York). Heavy. For teachers—or with specific assignments for better pupils. Valuable for reference. Good bibliography.

#### Government Lists

Nutrition education is important in the changed emphases caused by the emergency. The Information Exchange, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, will send a catalog of packets on nutrition education which can be borrowed by teachers.

The AAA of the Department of Agriculture issued, last October, a mimeographed list of available publications. This list can be obtained from the Department and teachers will find many of the pamphlets valuable for a study of either conservation or the farm problem.

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Three other guides obtainable from the Office of Government Reports (Room 500, 1405 G Street, N.W., Washington. Free) are: (1) Mimeographed list No. 3118. This gives an annotated and selective list of publications on federal expenditures, national defense, and government organizations and functions. (2) Reference List of National Defense Publications: A Selection of Pertinent Bulletins and Articles Prepared by Federal Agencies Actively Engaged in the Defense Program (free). This is a 35-page mimeographed catalog containing much free material on many topics dealing with the national defense. (3) The Digest of the Purposes of Federal Agencies, with its 50 pages of condensed information about the myriad agencies, boards, commissions, etc., is handy for reference.

#### Council for Democracy

The Council for Democracy, 285 Madison Avenue, New York, publishes and distributes many pamphlets suitable for school use. Its "Democracy in Action Series" now includes eight numbers, to which frequent additions will be made. These 40- to 50-page pamphlets costs 10 cents. The first eight are: (1) Freedom of Assembly and Anti-Democratic Groups. (2) Community Employment Problems under Defense. (3) The Negro and Defense. (4) Financing Defense. (5) America's Free Schools. (6) The Public and Strikes. (7) Advance through Crisis—a plea, with historical justification, for the advance of democracy in spite of the crisis. (8) Nazi Poison-Anti-Semitism, as the "heart of the Nazi attack on democracy" is here attacked and exposed. This is a "must" pamphlet for social studies teachers.

Other important publications of the Council for Democracy include: (1) The Poison in Our

System (10 cents)—nearly two years old, but still valuable as an exposé of anti-democratic propaganda. (2) Defense on Main Street (25 cents)—nearly 100 pages, including excellent reading material on a variety of subjects best summarized by the sub-title "A Guidebook for Local Activities for Defense and Democracy."

#### "Social Action"

Social Action is a monthly pamphlet of about 40 pages issued by the Council for Social Action of the Congregational and Christian Churches, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York. Each issue is on a separate topic, and includes suggested readings and questions for discussion. A great many back issues, as well as large numbers of both free and inexpensive pamphlets issued by other organizations, are available from this office. Many of the issues of Social Action are written by nationally known authorities and should prove satisfactory for use with average and better-thanaverage pupils. The first six issues of 1942 are scheduled as follows: January, Frank Crosswaith, The Negro in Industry; February, Grace Loucks Elliott, Home In Transition; March, Dana Doten, Rural Slums; April, Social Security; May, Arthur E. Holt, A History of Social Action; and June, Robert L. Calhoun, The Post-War World.

#### American Council on Public Affairs

The American Council on Public Affairs, 2135 Florida Avenue, Washington, publishes a large number of pamphlets on current problems. Few high school students would choose these as leisuretime reading, but they are excellent for reference, or as assigned reading for definite information. Representative of their publications are: (1) Herman Wolf, Labor Defends America (50 cents)-"A Handbook Containing Special Statements by Sidney Hillman, Herbert Morrison, Fiorello La Guardia, Paul McNutt, Robert Patterson, Frances Perkins and Harriet Elliott." (2) Ray Harvey, Want in the Midst of Plenty (50 cents)—this tells the background of the food stamp plan. (3) Claude Wickard, Secretary of Agriculture, Farmers and Defense (25 cents). (4) Design for Defense (50 cents)-four separate articles, Max Lerner, "Public Opinion," Walter Rautenstrauch, "Technology," Adolph A. Berle, Jr., "Diplomacy," John D. Black, "Agriculture."

# Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

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#### Radio Notes

The Washington, D.C., junior high schools are conducting a series of radio broadcasts, called "Our Good Neighbors," under sponsorship of *The Evening Star*. This department has just received from Miss Mary L. Ambrosi, of the Powell Junior High School, a copy of the supplementary material which accompanied her school's broadcast entitled "The Romance of the Rivers."

Several inquiries have come to this department concerning the availability of recording of the Bill of Rights program, "We Hold These Truths," broadcast over coast-to-coast networks Monday, December 15. According to the United States Office of Education, "Scripts of this stirring program are now available on loan through the Script and Transcription Exchange, U. S. Office of Education, Washington. Efforts are being made also to get the proper clearances so as to make recordings of the program available at an early date. The program—an hour in length—should serve admirably in school assemblies. . . ."

A study kit for persons interested in use and improvement of children's radio is available at cost, 50 cents, from the Radio Council on Children's Programs, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York. Among the items in the kit are suggestions for organizing local radio councils; lists of reading material, scripts, and recordings; and a special bibliography on "Radio and the Child."

#### Recordings and Transcriptions

Copies of RCA's latest booklet on the use of Victor records as teaching aids, entitled "Speech and Drama on Victor Records" may be obtained by writing to Ellsworth C. Dent, RCA Educational Director, Camden, New Jersey.

#### Motion Picture News

"Any group or individual planning a film program with the general theme 'Problems of a Democracy' will be interested in the film forum held by the Springfield Adult Education Council and the Bureau of Adult Education of the Springfield, Massachusetts, Public Schools. Ten vital

topics were excellently illustrated by well-selected films. A bibliography on each subject is included in their *Program Notes*. These may be secured by writing to Louis S. Goodman at Boston University School of Education, Boston, Massachusetts." (*The News Letter*, December, 1941)

The New York University Film Library, Washington Square, New York, has been named distributor for the Middle Atlantic States area for films from the Canadian National Film Board. Over 60 prints on various aspects of Canadian life and resources are available for sale or rental. The New York University Film Library, in collaboration with the University's center for safety education, has also assembled a rather complete library of safety films.

Erpi Classroom Films Inc. which recently moved to 1841 Broadway, New York, issued on February 1 the "Defense Number" of their Instructional Sound Film Bulletin. Copies of this bulletin will be sent to teachers on request. Erpi has been increasingly active within the past year in producing two types of American history film. The first aims to show major historical developments such as "Exploration and Discovery" from 1492 to the beginning of the seventeenth century; "Colonial Expansion of the United States"; "The Westward Movement in the United States"; "The Revolutionary Period in America"; and "Emigration in the United States." The second provides a series of pictures of definite localities showing characteristics of places, times, and peoples. Films already released include Early Settlers of New England, Colonial Children, A Planter of Colonial Virginia, Kentucky Pioneers, Flatboatmen of the Frontier, Life in Old Louisiana, and Pioneers of the Plains. Two additional subjects planned for early release are Dutch Settlers, and Spanish Settlers of the Southwest.

#### Current 16-mm. Releases

Brandon Films Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York.

Russian civilian defense shorts. A series of 1 reel, sound films with English commentary; produced under conditions of siege of Moscow and other cities. Apply for rental prices.

For Honor, Freedom and Country. "Scorched earth" policy, civilian labor brigades.

Russia's Millions Mobilize. Civilian reaction to invasion. Women in industry; guerilla groups; bomb shelter preparation.

Report from Moscow. Erskine Caldwell interviewed before leaving Moscow. Describes industrial mobilization.

On the Line of Fire. Russian air force and artillery.

The Red Army. Documentary on Soviet army, navy, and air force.

Soviet Woman. Women in civilian defense work.

Alert. 1 reel. Sound. Rental: apply. What to do in case of an air raid.

Pictorial Films Inc., RKO Building, Radio City, New York.

Thunder Over the Orient. 2 reels. Sound. Rental: apply.

Japanese aggression from 1891 to the present.

Sea of Strife. 2 reels. Sound. Rental: apply. The Mediterranean Sea from the time of the Romans to the present.

Walter O. Gutlohn, Inc., 25 W. 45th St., New York.

I Saw Russia. 1 reel. Sound. Rental: apply. Ralph Ingersoll tells of his tour of the world battlefronts.

Hitler's Threat To America. 1 reel. Sound. Rental: apply. Tour of the battlefronts of the Atlantic, Russia, China, Pacific, and Africa.

King Cole Sound Service, 203 E. 26th St., New York.

The Ancient Stones Cry Out. 5 reels. Sound. Rental: apply. Archeological discoveries are presented as verification of the writings of the Old Testament.

Hoffberg Productions Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York.

Columbus and the Discovery of America. 1 reel. Silent.

Rental: apply. Shadow-graph film for elementary grades.

The Cooperative League of the U.S.A., 167 W. 12th St., New York.

Here Is Tomorrow. 5 reels. Sound. Rental: apply. Documentary on consumer cooperative movement in America.

#### Map of the Western Pacific

The February issue of the National Geographic magazine carries as a supplement to its subscribers a ten-color, 201/2 x 261/2-inch map of "Theatre of War in the Pacific Ocean." This map of the world's largest ocean includes the shores of the four great continents which are touched by the Pacific. More than half of the circumference of the earth is covered by the map. The map carries a table which gives, in statute miles, 861 different airline distances between important points. Other items contained on the map are time zones, important cities, naval bases, railways, and important surface features. Separate copies of the map may be obtained from the National Geographic Society, Washington. Prices in the United States and Possessions, 50 cents in paper, 75 cents mounted on linen; Index 25 cents.

#### Government Material

In response to insistent and continuing demands for help the U. S. Office of Education has published a number of bulletins, pamphlets, reference lists, and the like, designed to offer practical help to school officials interested either in initiating or extending the use of such aids in the classroom. The following list of available publications is compiled to furnish information of the kind most frequently requested from the Office of Education. The materials listed are inexpensive and easily secured, some of them without charge so long as the supply lasts. They should prove helpful especially to teachers interested in furthering their knowledge of methods and techniques in this relatively unexplored field.

Conservation Films in Elementary Schools. Bulletin, 1941, No. 4. Washington, United States Government Printing Office. (In press). Gives suggestions on evaluating, selecting, and presenting films in the classroom and a brief annotated list of films selected for use in the teaching of conservation.

School Use of Visual Aids. Bulletin, 1938, No. 4. Washington, United States Government Printing Office. 10 cents. A summary of data secured in a nation-wide survey made in 1936 for the use of visual aids in school systems on the elementary and secondary levels. Aids considered include objects, specimens, and models; still pictures and graphic presentations; motion pictures.

Sources of Visual Aids for Instructional Use in Schools. Pamphlet No. 80. Revised, 1940. Washington, United States Government Printing Office. (In press). Lists federal government offices, state government offices, colleges and universities, libraries, museums, voluntary associations, and commercial dealers from which various types of visual aids can be secured; also, sources of information on visual education.

Opportunities for the Preparation of Teachers in the Use of Visual Aids to Instruction. Pamphlet No. 89. Washington, United States Government Printing Office. 5 cents. Lists institutions of higher learning offering courses in visual education, gives titles of courses and descriptions of a few typical courses. Based upon a catalog study, 1938.

Visual Aids in Education: Research Studies. Good Reference Bibliography No. 35. Washington, U. S. Office of Education. Free. Selected annotated list of references.

State Library Agencies as Sources of Pictorial Material for Social Studies. Leaflet No. 34. Washington, United States Government Printing Office. 5 cents. Lists library agencies throughout the United States furnishing pictorial material in the social studies.

Films Adapted to Teaching Conservation in the Elementary Schools. Circular No. 184. Washington, U. S. Office of Education. Free. A selected, annotated list of films suitable for teaching conservation.

Visual Aids Handbook. Part I: The Use of Films, Filmstrips, and Slides. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, Division of CCC Camp Education. Free. Prepared especially for CCC Camp instructors, but suggestive to other teachers.

Film Catalogue: 16-mm Educational Films Used Successfully in CCC Camps. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, Division of CCC Camp Education. Free. Lists 199 films and gives information as to source, type and content, as well as suggestions for use.

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#### **Building America**

The January issue of Building America (Vol. VII, No. 9), the photographic magazine of modern problems, is of particular interest to teachers of the social studies inasmuch as it treats a subject usually neglected because of the scarcity of available material. "The American Indian" is the title of this issue of Building America. In words and pictures the present status of the American aborigine is reviewed; an historical background is presented, and an attempt is made to evaluate the Indian's old and varying cultures. Early Indian-White relations are presented in order to show how they affect the present situation. The new policies of the Department of Interior in relation to Indian education and welfare is sharply contrasted to former governmental treatment of our Indian friends.

This issue of Building America is the first of a welcome series on our minority groups. Other groups will be dealt with in future issues. For further information concerning this picture magazine write the Americana Corporation, 2 West 45th Street, New York.

#### Glass Slides

Probably the most-used visual aid in the classrooms of America today is the glass slide. Yet paradoxically enough it is also one of the most neglected aids. With more dramatic motion pictures being introduced in increasing numbers in our classrooms, there is a tendency on the part of some teachers to look upon the slide as outmoded and old-fashioned. Those who go all-out for the motion picture or radio too often forget that each type of audio or visual aid serves a particular function. The radio gives us a sense of being a part of a scene, of hearing events as they actually occur. The motion picture adds concreteness to teaching by showing action. Yet words heard over the radio are too quickly forgotten, and scenes in movies are too often gone before they can be properly studied.

The effectiveness of the glass slide lies in the fact that it furnishes a large, projected picture which stands still while the class examines it in detail. Recently the Keystone View Company of Meadville, Pennsylvania, one of the largest producers of glass slides for classroom use, announced a new Secondary Social Studies Program under the direction of Earl W. Hildreth working in collaboration with 24 teachers of the social studies in many sections of the United States. This series aims to present adequate visualization of social

studies' basic divisions—play, work, and civil life—with proper accent on the problems involved in each classification. Part I of this series, with five units, presents play or work or civil life up to 1900; and Part II, with three units, presents the subsequent development of the twentieth century. Of special importance at this time is a topical unit which is now available entitled, "Democracy Arms." Part I, "Democracy Arms—Yesterday" and Part II, "Democracy Arms—Today," presents a well-rounded picture of America under arms. Each unit is accompanied by teachers' manuals containing descriptions of each picture, questions on the slides, and suggested reading and other activities.

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#### Helpful Articles

- "A Manual For Civilian Defense," Buildings and Business Management, January 16, 1942. If you bear any responsibility for defense activities in your community, this illustrated article will prove invaluable to you.
- Atkinson, Carroll, "Radio in the Classroom," Clearing House, XVI:291-293, January, 1942. Best current practices and theories summarized.
- Carpenter, Harry A., "Scientific Gadgets Come to the Aid of Learning," Education LXII:296-300, January, 1942. This article refers especially to audio-visual aids in science teaching, but the findings are equally applicable to the social studies.
- Cherry, Donald L., "Recordings in the Social Science Classroom," Service Bulletin of the FREC (Federal Radio Education Committee, Office of Education, Washington, D. C. Copies sent free), January, 1942. Summarizes best utilization techniques.
- Frank, Josette, "The People in the Comics," Progressive Education, XIX:28-31, January, 1942. Helping children to discriminate among comics and to evaluate them.
- Holmes, S. D., "Cadet Work: A Map Reading Course," The School, XXX:297-99, December, 1941. The principal map-study topics in a high school cadet corps may be suggestive to teachers of social studies who wish to improve map work in their schools.
- Knight, Charles R., "Parade of Life Through the Ages,"
  National Geographic Magazine, LXXXI:141-184, February, 1942. Thirteen illustrations and 24 paintings in full color. Excellent materials for the story-of-civilization courses.
- Roberts, Helen M., "Photography in a Junior High School Class," The High School Journal, XXV:26-27, January, 1942. Suggested activities for a camera club.
- Wattenberg, William W., "Education Through Socially Useful Work," Educational Screen, XX:425-26, December, 1941. How students may carry out community projects as a part of their educational activities at the Chicago Teachers College.
- Wulff, Adolph A., "Film Review," Progressive Education, XIX:63-64, January, 1942. A critical comparison of the Yale University silent "Chronicles of America" photoplays, and the Warner Brothers Historical Featurets.
- Readers are invited to send items of interest for this department to Dr. Hartley at the editorial office, 204 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York.

# Book Reviews

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THE GROWTH OF EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION. By A. E. R. Boak, Albert Hyma, and Preston Slosson. 2nd ed. New York: Crofts, 1941. Pp. xxv, 488, 638. \$4.50.

This volume surveys the development of European civilization from its origins in Egypt and Babylonia to the impact of the Second World War on American policy. It is the second edition of a college textbook first published in 1938. This edition has a new final chapter which brings the story down to August, 1941; otherwise the text does not differ from that of the first edition. About one-tenth of the space is given to the Ancient Background, approximately one-third to the Midle Ages, and the remainder to the period since 1500.

Since the narrative covers about 6,000 years in about 1100 pages, it is of necessity concise. Nevertheless, by means of careful organization, well-informed scholarship, clear exposition, and a crisp style, the authors have given their terse

presentation reality and force. A vivid phrase here and there, and an occasional touch of humor also enliven the account. Economic, social, and cultural developments are discussed but the chief emphasis is on political history. In discussing cultural trends the authors sometimes have overburdened the narrative with names—a not uncommon fault in textbooks. In one paragraph of average length no fewer than nineteen writers are mentioned.

There are many illustrations, some of which have helpful descriptive comment. The maps are generally satisfactory, although a few are too detailed for clarity. Each chapter has a list of suggested readings. The usefulness of the volume is further enhanced by chronological charts, lists of rulers of European states, and an adequate index. The format is good.

It is evident that a great deal of careful thought and labor has gone into the book. As a college textbook for history of civilization courses it ap-

## **BACKGROUND OF WORLD RELATIONS**

#### By Julia Emery

Head Department Social Studies, Wichita (Kansas) High School East

#### **READY MARCH 31**

This book presents the minimal essentials for intelligent grasp of news events of world significance. It provides background material—solid information—and gives a vantage point from which the stream of events may be seen to flow logically.

The course out of which the present book developed was given to successive high school classes during a dozen years, and frequently revised. Certain topics were emphasized—for instance, the amount of history was lessened and more time devoted to the various problems of people in their relationships to one another—cultural, economic, and legal.

Methods and devices for reading and thinking that will aid students in following current developments are discussed and questions and topics following chapters encourage the student to make independent use of sources of information. Maps, graphs, and tables are freely used.

#### WORLD BOOK COMPANY

Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York

2126 Prairie Avenue, Chicago

pears to be sound and teachable. It treats topics too concisely to serve satisfactorily as a pupil reference for secondary-school courses. For the teacher, however, it is a convenient compendium with much suggestive and thought-provoking material and many illuminating comparisons of past events and conditions with those of the present.

HAROLD T. HAGG

State Teachers College Bemidji, Minnesota

CONTEMPORARY EUROPE: A STUDY OF NATIONAL, INTERNATIONAL, ECONOMIC, AND CULTURAL TRENDS. A Symposium. Edited by Joseph S. Roucek. New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1941. Pp. xi, 670. \$5.00.

Thirty specialists have considered the problems of post-war Europe from the standpoint of their respective fields and have attempted "to synthesize the genetic development of Europe in its political, economic and cultural aspects from 1918 to the present time." Certainly only the combined energies of a group of experts could have made possible the publication of a work of this scope. It is truly a book without a conclusion—those fiery pages are now being written on the scattered battlefronts of the world.

Approximately two-thirds of the volume is devoted to a consideration of the individual countries of Europe and their special problems. As one would expect, somewhat more extensive treatment is given to the problems of Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics than is given to the remaining countries of Europe. In no instance, however, does the emphasis given to any particular country seem to be greatly out of proportion to its general importance. Among the typical problems discussed in connection with each country are geography, ethnography, post-war status, domestic politics, foreign policy, economic development, cultural development, education, and current status. Each author has exercised considerable freedom in developing his own sections of the book so that undue rigidity has been rather effectively avoided. Naturally these chapters vary somewhat in philosophical value as well as factual reliability.

Perhaps the most welcome sections of the book are the first four chapters and the last eight chapters. These are the sections in which a special effort has been made to provide the reader with a more unified understanding of Europe's part in the present world conflict. The opening portions of the volume emphasize the importance of twentieth-century Europe in the whole span of world history, the difficulties encountered in reaching post-war settlements, the labyrinth of peace efforts from 1919 to 1930, and the role of economics in the politics of Europe. The closing chapters of the volume are also especially helpful.

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They treat such subjects as "The Rise of New Ideologies and State Forms"; "The Road to the Second World War: 1930-1940"; "Grand Military Strategy on the Stage Set by Euporean Geography"; "The Social Sciences and Education"; "Europe in World Affairs"; and "The Second World War: Act Two." In these chapters a genuine attempt is made to weave the strands of post-war European life into a coherent pattern.

In all, there are twenty-eight maps and charts, each designed to throw light on some particular problem. The charts employ a semi-logarithmic scale so that comparisons can be made more effectively. The references and selected bibliography at the close of each chapter give evidence

of the scholarly nature of the work.

Although minor inconsistencies are mute evidence of the multiple authorship of the volume, one cannot help but be impressed by the measure of continuity and consistency which has been maintained. No doubt the minor inconsistencies can be regarded as a small price to pay for the tremendous quantity of information enclosed between the two covers. In a number of places the readability of the book is lessened somewhat by its almost encyclopedic character, but even this highly factual treatment has its compensations. So much of the basic evidence is presented that the reader finds it possible to develop many generalizations of his own, and the social studies teacher will be able to make good use of this wealth of recent material.

Because Contemporary Europe was written at a time when the Second World War was still in its indecisive stages, a significant portion of its content may need revising when the war is over. Meanwhile one more voice is added to the evergrowing chorus which has been emphasizing that the fortunes of the United States are inescapably tied up with the fortunes of Europe.

J. W. PAJARI

University of Saskatchewan

THE WORLD'S DESTINY AND THE UNITED STATES. By a Conference of Experts in International Relations. Chicago: World Citizens Association, 1941. Pp. xx, 309. \$1.00.

This book constitutes a report of a conference of experts to deal with the world situation and the means whereby the democratic countries may effectively deal with it. Special attention is paid to the problems created by the war and to the obligations of the United States with regard to those problems.

It appears that adequate notes were taken of what each person said during the course of the eight sessions or round-tables, and the material for the book was organized not on the basis of when it was said but of the subject to which it pertains. The large topics that constitute the chapters of the book are: the achievements and failures of the League of Nations, the United States in a world at war, the rights of man in an international organization, the new political order, economic and social justice, educational problems and intercultural understanding, and general conclusions.

It ought to be said that certain beliefs were generally taken for granted by the members of the group and were therefore but little discussed. Some of these assumptions may be listed as follows: (1) There is such a thing as a "world community"; (2) In this community the United States has a part to play and obligations to fulfill; (3) It is our duty to examine these obligations so as the more effectively to discharge them; (4) It is

essential that Hitler and the forces usually associated with his name should be defeated before a constructive program in world affairs may be put into effect; (5) In this defeat of antagonistic and destructive forces the United States must play an active part; and (6) Both force and ideals play an important role in human affairs; pacifism is not the way out.

Space does not permit a full account of the discussion of any particular topic, but conclusions may be suggested. The conference refused to attempt to make a formal blue print of future world society, if only for the reason that specific proposals would furnish materials for Axis propaganda. A firm and lasting partnership among the democracies seemed to be essential as a foundation for any plan-although this must not become a mere scheme for world domination. In such a partnership the United States must collaborate more actively in the post-war period than she did in the years following 1918. A world organization is considered necessary for the organization of peace, but it must not make the mistakes of the former League. Universalism and regionalism will have to be pursued concurrently and the structure of the world organization may have to be more decentralized this time. Proper recognition

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# THE AMERICAN SCENE

By IRVING R. MELBO and A. O. BOWDEN, The University of Southern California; and MARGARET R. KOLLOCK and NELLIE P. FERRY, West Philadelphia Senior High School.

THE scope of this book includes a consideration of the origin and diffusion of basic traits in human culture, of basic traits in human behavior, and of the function and structure of the basic institutions of American life. Although the

American scene is stressed, background material in general social evolutions is included to afford historical perspective and informative comparisons, which are necessary to give students a reasonable faith in our present institutions and a tempered optimism for the further progress of mankind, \$1.96



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will have to be given to the diversity of cultures in the world. No real agreement seems to have been found on the nature of the peace in the matters of economic and social collaboration. The respective philosophies of the free market and of government control of economic activity stood out clearly and were not successfully harmonized—if,

indeed, they can be.

Bewildered social studies teachers may take some quiet consolation from the inability of the "experts" to agree beyond the limits of very general statements of purpose. Yet they ought not lean back and say in evident comfort, "There's no use for me to worry; even the experts can't agree!" This report ought to create a desire to probe these tough questions further and to work slowly from general statements to specific proposals. Without study and discussion on the part of all interested and capable groups we are sure to stumble blindly into an unsuccessful peace; even with it we may do none too well. Cool minds, capable of transcending the demands of the moment and freed from national- and regionalcultural limitations, are needed if the eventual winning of the war shall not have been in vain.

RONALD V. SIRES

Ball State Teachers College Muncie, Indiana

Public Policy and the General Welfare. By Charles A. Beard. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1941. Pp. xii, 176. \$1.00 college, \$1.50 trade.

THE NEW CENTRALIZATION: A STUDY OF INTER-GOVERNMENTAL RELATIONSHIPS IN THE UNITED STATES. By George C. S. Benson. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1941. Pp. xii, 181. \$1.00 college, \$1.50 trade.

Administration and the Rule of Law. By J. Roland Pennock. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1941. Pp. xii, 259. \$1.00 college, \$1.50

trade

These three volumes form part of the American Government in Action series edited by Phillips Bradley. This series, as the name implies, seeks to bring new understanding of modern government as a functioning organization. This is to be accomplished through a series of monographs on various phases of the current governmental scene by persons equipped through study and experience to speak authoritatively. Although the individual studies are written so as to be of interest to the layman who is seeking to get a firmer grasp on the realities of present-day government, they are all sufficiently solid in content

to repay careful reading by the more advanced who do not fancy being classified as laymen.

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Public Policy and the General Welfare serves as a useful philosophical background for the other two volumes. It presents an attempt by one of America's foremost thinkers to peer into the confusion of the present and catch a glimpse of the kind of political system that we may expect in the future. Dr. Beard's optimism is cheering for it is not of the "whistling in the dark" variety. Basing his case upon historical evidence, the

author speaks convincingly.

His thesis is that even in these troubled times when democracy is under fire there is no excuse for assuming that it has played itself out. By tracing briefly the history of other systems of social philosophy he shows that all have been vulnerable to change, but he insists that given proper intelligence on the part of its leaders democracy can undergo change and still not disintegrate. Out of the present period of questioning will come a new "social synthesis" full of vitality yet not sacrificing the freedom and humanitarianism that has ever been democracy's chief claim to superiority.

Every society must be based upon certain values which it conceives desirable. It becomes the task of the statesman to select the set of values—ethical and aesthetic—that will be the goal of our efforts. Only when this is done can we capitalize upon the wonders of modern science and technology, for without such an integrating goal all these splendid potentialities dissipate themselves into

frustration.

As a source of the values most full of promise, Dr. Beard returns to the Constitution. He shows how its purposes as originally conceived were sufficiently broad to provide a national government powerful enough to care for the general welfare of its people. Through the mistaken interpretation of the meaning of laissez faire and the narrow legalism of the Supreme Court, the original intentions of the framers were, for many years, thwarted. Happily, he points out, this is no longer true.

A closing chapter considers the strategic position that administration must hold in the government of tomorrow. Some meaty suggestions for insuring that administration will be sufficient to

its responsibility deserve pondering.

The New Centralization offers a reconsideration, in the light of the sweeping developments of the past ten years, of the interrelationships between our three levels of government. The book presents a brief but comprehensive survey of the manifold problems arising from the triplelayered character of our governmental system. In an illuminating discussion of the pros and cons of decentralization the author shows that many of the theoretical points usually advanced on either side prove upon examination to be inconclusive. This is an excellent chapter for those who base their arguments upon the superficial clichés that appear so logical but seldom contribute to a genuine understanding of the real issue.

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Turning to a consideration of the present pattern of federal and state powers, Dr. Benson sketches the factors leading to the existing allocation of functions. Contrary to the popular view, there has not been an undue usurpation of state functions by the federal government; nor will there be in the future if the states accept the challenges which new conditions have created.

One of the most valuable parts of the books presents a critical analysis of some of the devices currently employed to reduce the frictions between the different units and levels of government. Grants-in-aid, tax credits, compacts, uniform laws, home rule, and similar devices come in for calm, dispassionate appraisal. A concluding section contains some moderate, hence practicable, proposals for capturing the nicest balance between centralized efficiency and local autonomy in the years to come. A brief critical bibliography simplifies the task of those who wish to pursue the subject further.

Democratic government implies a social system in which the ever-expanding needs of the whole people shall be provided for. This carries with it the further implication that the number of governmental agencies, exercising the power to impose restraints upon the individual, must also increase. The problem of working out a system whereby the liberties of the individual will be adequately safeguarded while the administrative agencies are accorded ample freedom to work out thir difficult tasks is the most important one facing democracy today. Administration and the Rule of Law by J. Roland Pennock, deals with this problem. The author is no doctrinaire; he has no ingenious remedy to offer. He does believe, however that we have sufficient resourcefulness to develop our institutions so that liberty can be preserved without stultifying the dynamic energy which modern government must have.

The reasons for the proliferation of administrative agencies, exercising within their respective spheres the powers of little governments, are

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carefully set forth. Several of the independent commissions are discussed for the purpose of showing the nature of their work, and their relation to the problem of democratic control. The reconciliation of administrative legislation and adjudication with the American theory of separation of powers and due process of law takes up the major part of the book. The leading cases marking out the present boundaries of permissible action are included. If Dr. Pennock fails to leave the reader with a clear comprehension of the precise limits within which administration may now act, it is because the courts have not cooperated to make such a thing possible, for his presentation is both lucid and concise.

L. H. CHAMBERLAIN

Columbia University

PUBLIC UTILITIES AND THE NATIONAL POWER POLICIES. By James C. Bonbright, New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. vi, 82. \$1.25.

THE SEARCH FOR FINANCIAL SECURITY. By Robert B. Warren, New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. vi, 91. \$1.25.

There are climates and seasons of opinion as well as of weather. Both of these booklets were part of a lecture series given under a different, if not more favorable climate. The defense program was then barely under way and power shortage was hardly dreamed of; and while now deficits for defense may run into tens of billions without a murmur from financial conservatives, then the modest deficits of two or three billion for the raising of domestic morale were objects of grave concern. Thus the climate changes.

Professor Bonbright presents a brief description, especially valuable for the laymen curious for more information on the policy of the Roose-velt administration on public utilities. Under the court-imposed concept of "fair value" regulation had broken down. Abuses of the holding company device had become notorious. The varied policy of the present administration was the response. Public power projects would furnish a "yardstick" for measuring fair rates; "prudent investment" might replace "fair value" in the minds of the judges of the new court; holding companies, once tools for financial piracy, should be changed to their proper function of organizing integrated power systems; distribution at low

rates through cooperative and municipal systems would encourage wider use of and furnish sound costs for retailing electric current. This booklet furnishes a good descriptive account of the program by one who, for the most part, sympathizes with it.

Professor Warren's lecture on recent banking changes is different in type. Description gives way to analysis; and insight, in terms of a few concepts, gives meaning to the recent banking changes and relates the banking process to its wider economic setting. Using the concept "security" as a locus, the banking process is unified and explained in a manner which furnishes insight as well as information.

Basically the changes in banking have centered in the search for "security." In banking terms this means "convertibility" of the various types of money into each other and ultimately into its basic form, gold. By the early '30's convertibility of all forms of currency had been achieved, but the real gap in banking armor was its failure to make the same provision for demand deposits. The reforms of recent years have remedied that defect. Banking mechanisms are now provided which permit the complete con-

vertibility of all forms of money, both currency and deposits, into each other and into "lawful money." Gold has been eliminated. Thus we have the complete monetary security we wanted—complete convertibility.

But this form of security has its own "pay-roll tax." Self-liquidating loans for agriculture and industry share the insecurity of their localities. The collateral loan, backed by liquid market values, clearly demonstrated its insecurity. Thus these forms, once regarded as essential to banking procedure, are passing out. This is the price we pay for monetary security. The banks are thus restricted largely to the purchase of government bonds which offer the highest degree of security. Is this sound? We are not told, for the term "sound" implies evaluation which the author avoids. He does tell us that the banks are adapting themselves to the form of economic society in which they function. That is their job.

Incidentally no voice from Washington proposes to strike a body blow at inflation by a very simple expedient; prohibit the banks from acquiring any more government bonds from this time forth. That would be a real blow, almost a knockout, to inflation.

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Professor Warren's genuine insight into the significance of these changes in the banking process is exceedingly enlightening, at least, so a banker friend found it, and so did I.

CHESTER M. KEARNEY

Aurora College

ELEMENTS OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY. (Third ed.) By Newell LeRoy Sims. New York: Crowell, 1940. Pp. xiii, 690. \$3.75.

Here is the third edition of a scholarly college text which has stood the severe test of classroom use among critical teachers almost long enough to merit the term "standard." Its emphasis upon the developmental view of rural society has not changed, but has been enriched through judicious use of new points of view. Topics for discussion for each chapter have increased its classroom utility. The book is organized in six parts following a logical pattern of presentation. In the introduction excellent reasons are set forth justifying considerable attention to the sociology of rural society. The author refuses to jump off the deep end and maintains a wise balance of "Rurbanism" between the extremes of "Urbanism" and "Ruralism." Parts II, III, and IV stress what the author chooses to call structural, vital, and material elements, respectively. The latter part features much new material on rural housing and rural poverty and relief. Part V is by far the longest with thirteen well-rounded chapters dealing with rural institutions and social patterns of behavior. Chapters 22 and 23 on Rural Education are especially pertinent for those of us who enroll new waves of former rural students each year without much knowledge of the social picture out of which they come. Part VI ought to be read in toto by all social educators for its simple yet forthright statement of the socio-cultural process in ruralurban civilization and eight techniques of rural change.

The claims to additions of "new graphic material," "new bibliographies," and "the latest available data," as set forth in the preface, are not substantiated as broadly or deply as one might expect in the light of the author's stress upon the "many changes" and "revolutionary forces" operating in the rural community. Tables of charts and figures are neither listed nor indexed. And much of the graphic material, while new to this edition, taxes the word "recent." Visual aids in texts like these suffer from the unfortunate circumstance that revision does not wait upon the latest (1940) census returns. Hence the author is forced again and again to supple-

ment figures in tables and charts with guesses as to the probable present status thereof. An example of how the visual impressions in graphic data conflict with the author's own keen sense of recency as cited in the text is given on page 323, where a very careful reading is necessary to see that probably over 38 per cent of the farm homes have electricity today, almost three times the percentage used as the basis for the visual map based on 1930 figures.

These criticisms should not detract however from the many fine features which make the Elements practically a handbook on rural society by virtue of the wealth of fact and principle therein. Teachers of problems courses will look long before finding a better reference to plug

the rural gap.

RONALD B. EDGERTON

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University of Wisconsin

Delinquency Control. By Lowell Juilliard Carr,

New York: Harper, 1941. Pp. xiv, 447. \$3.50. Medical men, engineers, scientists have found solutions for many of their problems; applied them and solved them. Today medical researchers, psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, physicians, teachers, and clinicians have developed techniques to treat the maladjusted child, but in few instances are these methods used. "Fifty to eighty-five percent of all prisoners begin their anti-social behavior in childhood." Emotional difficulties seem to be the basis for most of these. By solving these emotional problems in youth, we can reduce the number of adult criminals as well as many of the mental patients in hospitals and asylums.

Carr discusses six "Deviation pressures": deviant homes, culture-conflict areas, sub-standard areas, delinquency-tradition areas, street trades and domestic service, and certain forms of commercialized recreation," one or more of which are usually factors in delinquency. He suggests means of eliminating them at least partially. The

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first problem is to find the children who need help. Parolees and probationers are very evident groups. Problem children and children in areas of "deviation pressures" are two other groups. The solution lies not only in correction of these youngsters' maladjustments, but in eliminating the causation factors. Another problem lies in the fact that the next generation will come predominantly from the rural, uneducated, and lower economic brackets, while the professional and business classes are failing to reproduce.

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There is a typical "correctional cycle" through which a delinquent passes. In which cycle the police, the detention home, the juvenile court, the probation officer, and the correctional institution play an important part. The juvenile court judge should be one who understands the youth and is also interested in the parents and the community. Few judges have the facilities or the budget to deal adequately with each case. Different types of correctional institutions are rarely available. Probation officers are often inadequately trained and have too many cases to handle. The foster home, when cases and home have been carefully selected and supervised, has proved a highly desirable method of treatment,

especially for young first offenders. The institution with the old regimentation method very seldom accomplishes its purpose. The newer method of organizing them like a small community has had excellent results. Carr suggests several rating scales whereby maladjustment may be detected. These can be used in the schools.

In striving to lower our delinquency rate and in turn the number of criminals, we must keep the "normals normal." Public playgrounds and such organizations as "Boy Scouts" and "Girl Scouts" play a very active part in organizing their leisure time. The step from school to a job should be made easier through the cooperation of the schools and industry. Next, the family or the school should prepare the youth for marriage and parenthood. Carr suggests methods of controlling delinquency in almost any community. He cites examples and warns of many of the pitfalls. Strong leadership can be gained by getting the cooperation of the school board, various social agencies, civic groups, newspapers, library, radio station, and church groups.

Appendix A deals with Carr's "Delinquency Prevention Rating Form" issued by "The Michigan Child Guidance Institute" and gives instruc-

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tions in its use. In Appendix B is a typical case record from the files of "The Michigan Child Guidance Institute." A reproduction of the publication of "The Michigan Delinquency News Letter" is printed in Appendix C. Appendix D, pp. 433 to 440, gives an excellent bibliography dealing with the subjects touched upon in his book.

PAUL R. BUSEY

Bloom Township High School Chicago Heights, Illinois

Men on the Move. By Nels Anderson. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xiii, 357. \$3.00.

The author of this excellent piece of reporting has done a fine sequel to *The Hobo*, published in 1923, which, he claims, he has "not been permitted to forget" and which he has been "unable to live down." Since the academic mind identifies him with the hobo, he claims that he "began to be cynical about the subject" which so many persons thought he treated so well.

Men on the Move is not a revision of The Hobo. Instead, it deals with a new type of social phenomenon, the migrant, who bids fair, if he has not already done so, to become a distinct type of personality. Because it has summarized so much material on migrancy, this volume will doubtless be the handbook, during the next decade, which students will be obliged to consult. Ever since Carlton Parker published his first papers on this subject a quarter of a century ago, the migratory worker has become an increasingly significant object of pity, condemnation, and interpretation. Marian Hathway, Thomas Minehan, Carter Goodrich, Carey McWilliams, and John Steinbeck have contributed significantly to the documentation.

Since so much that has been written has been restricted to the migrants of the Pacific coast, we are indebted to the author for making it clear that this is a problem for almost every part of America. With the aid of numerous pictures and tables, together with the author's apt descriptions, we gain insight into the economic and social forces which produce migrants, the influence of mechanization and urbanization on their behavior, the significance of booms and crashes in producing cycles of migrancy, the unfortunate and often unsanitary conditions under which they live, the average period of residence, the effects on family life, the welfare work which has been attempted among members of the group, as well as other aspects of the problem. While The Hobo, which we are not willing to

forget, was a description of the culture of a personality type, it aided its readers to understand how foot-free men behaved and felt. Because migrancy is the product of different social forces and represents a different type of behavior, the reader is obliged to interpret the culture of migrants from the descriptions which the author presents. Thus, the novelist Steinbeck may have done better than the sociologist. In the meantime the author has furnished us with documentation of the facts and forces which the novelist must have felt and, within certain range, must have experienced.

JOHN A. KINNEMAN

Illinois State Normal University

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